The Nation

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The Week

GEN. GOETHALS'S announcement concerning our shipping programme means that a definite, workable plan has been substituted for a hazy dream. Instead of enormous numbers of wooden ships taking form faster than we can follow them, steel vessels are to be turned out to the extent of 3,000,000 tons in eighteen months. This is not much below the estimate for the wooden boats, which was for 200,000 tons a month. As the supposed advantage for the latter was the speed with which they could be produced, there can hardly be a question of the wisdom of the new plan. The builder of the Panama Canal may rely upon it that the country will not refuse him any needful authority for the great task he has undertaken. It will be interested less, however, in the question of ways and means than in the readiness of the Government as shown in this case to abandon a programme which is discovered to be defective and in the making of one which promises to do what is required. Prompt scrapping of "happy thoughts" or even of carefully developed arrangements, in favor of better ones, is not the least of the necessities of the course upon which we are embarked.

SENATOR GORE proposes that the upper chamber avoid debate on prohibition amendments to his Food bill. It can take the matter up in connection with the fourteenth section of the Lever bill, now in the House, which would give the President power to limit, regulate, or prohibit "the use of food materials or feed in the production of alcohol or of alcoholic or non-alcoholic beverages." In both Senate and House there will be those who would like to attach the radical Webb amendment for the general prohibition of the manufacture or transportation of liquor to the food bills; and all who hope to see clear-cut, sane food legislation carried through with a minimum of wrangling will wish such attempts defeated. Senator Gore's bill looks simply to the stimulation of food production, and prohibition amendments are utterly out of place in it. Representative Lever's broader bill treats the liquor question wisely, in a way that ought to satisfy all who wish to have the conversion of grain into drink carefully and scientifically limited, and will not offend unnecessarily the powerful liquor interests and the statesmen who want the $300,000,000 that it is estimated the proposed tax of $2 a gallon on distilled spirits would yield.

THE Federal Trade Commission has finished an investigation of the coal industry and urges that "the price of bituminous coal, which is a necessity, should be fixed." This follows the Commission's statement of two months ago that it found no justification for the increase in price which anthracite miners were making, and its insistence upon the customary reduction of April 1. As the output of Pennsylvania anthracite is only one-sixth that of all American coal, any regulation of prices would eventually have to be general. Bituminous operators, it seems, have been holding up the West and South. Many of them attempted no defence against the charge of extortion which the Commission based on an examination of their books, beyond asserting that they were losing money several years ago, and they wished now to get a-plenty while they were getting. This means that "they are demanding prices at the mine to-day which run from 50 per cent. to several hundred per cent. over the cost of production." The Commission declares that a remedy should be found at once. It does not advise Congress as to the precise steps to be taken, as it did in the case of the gasolene business; this is probably because some of the bills now pending to grant to the Federal Executive certain powers in controlling the prices of necessities may be enlarged to cover coal.

THOUGH the war has brought philanthropic campaigns on a huger and huger scale, that which the Red Cross will undertake June 18-25 for a minimum fund of $100,000,000 will strikingly overtop all previous ones. Never before have private citizens of this country been spurred to give $15,000,000 a day for seven successive days. Only the most earnest and carefully planned effort can raise such a sum, and that effort is now being prepared. The money is to be used, in large part at least, for devastated France—that object is to be kept in the foreground until the Government has made it clear how much private enterprise will be left to do for the dependents made by conscription and by losses in Europe. In New York twenty teams of men and ten of women will be kept at work, each team composed of ten people of prominence. Jacob H. Schiff, Finley J. Shepard, and J. P. Morgan have already consented to head teams. In other cities a similar plan will be followed. The appeal which Mr. Davison has made for the inhabitants of Poland, Lithuania, and western Russia, and of the 1,500 villages and towns destroyed in France, ought, if emphasized and driven home during the third week in June, to elicit the desired hundred millions.

DISMISSAL of Germans who ask for recommendations for permits to be allowed in the recently established "barred zones" is in sorry contrast with the elevated spirit with which we entered the war. These unfortunate men were known to be German all along, but their nationality had apparently made no difference to their employers. To dismiss them, following their request for the recommendation they required, is to punish them for obeying the law. Marshal McCarthy is right in denouncing such action, and he makes a point which should be weighed by employers, when he remarks that an employed alien is less likely to commit a crime than one out of a job. Persecution of "alien enemies" is an almost inevitable accompaniment of war, but we have begun it rather soon. It is one of the "mistakes" which we should determine to avoid. Indeed, we are pledged against it, so far as the President could pledge us. In his war message he said:

> We shall happily still have an opportunity to prove that friendship in our daily attitude and actions toward the millions of men and women of German birth and native sympathy who live among us and share our life, and we shall be proud to prove

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it toward all who are in fact loyal to their neighbors and to the Government in the hour of test. They are most of them as true and loyal Americans as if they had never known any other fealty or allegiance.

It is to be hoped that we shall hear no more of these really shameful dismissals.

THE tone of the British press in discussing U-boat defence is almost jubilant. The reference is plainly to something more radical than increased counter-activity such as might be expected to follow on the reorganization of the Admiralty administration, the arrival of American destroyers in Atlantic waters and of Japanese patrol ships in the Mediterranean. The *Westminster Gazette* is not the kind of newspaper to fly off the handle; yet the naval correspondent of the *Gazette*—it might well be Mr. Arthur Pollen himself—goes so far as to speak of an infallible method against the submarine, and twice emphasizes the marvellous simplicity of the device. We get corroboration from a speech delivered some time ago in the House of Lords by Lord Beresford, who surely is not inclined to minimize the submarine danger or to exaggerate the virtues of the Admiralty. Starting with the assertion that more ships have been sunk by mines than by torpedoes, Lord Beresford declared that fortunately "a brilliant plan had been invented for overcoming that danger." This speech was delivered at the height of U-boat activity, and found almost instant confirmation in the sharp decline of losses. It is hard to imagine people who ought to know speaking of brilliant and infallible devices against the submarine without very substantial grounds for their hopefulness.

NO such addition of voters has ever been made at a stroke in Great Britain as is contemplated by the bill the second reading of which was moved in the House of Commons on Tuesday week. The increase of 2,000,000 in the men voters is about the increase made by the Reform bill of 1884, twice the increase of 1867, and ten times that of 1832. Yet the chief addition to the electorate is not the 2,000,000 men, but three times that number of women. The total increase just about doubles the voting population. Here again 1867 is the nearest parallel, the voters being increased by less than half in 1884 and slightly more than half in 1832. In pressing this reform, as in trying to find a solution for the Irish problem, Great Britain is practicing democracy as well as preaching it. The war is not without an item or two on the credit side of the bloody ledger. For it is woman's unmistakable service in the greatest crisis which has converted many anti-suffragists, and a similar revision of opinion has come about with reference to men who could do their bit for the Empire everywhere except at the ballot-box. If this is to be a war for democracy, we can hear them all saying, let it begin here.

THE specific facts retailed last week from Petrograd under scare headlines about anarchy in Russia may have been true, and yet the general impression was an exaggerated one. We can very well see how disorder and mob violence would manifest itself in an empire of one hundred and eighty millions in the throes of revolution. But it is also necessary to remember that a formidable catalogue of peasant and labor excesses might have been compiled in any year under the defunct Czarism. The world seldom heard of the village uprisings and the labor strikes that were suppressed without mercy as part of the routine of automatic government. The Czarism maintained "order" in its own way. Far from ideal though conditions may be all over Russia, the point upon which to fix our minds is this—that good news has latterly been coming out of Petrograd. The reorganized Provisional Government is succeeding beyond all reasonable expectations. The compromise upon which it was based has been accepted wholeheartedly by both parties. It is highly significant that the Socialist members of the Government, on reporting to the Council of Workers and Soldiers, should have received a unanimous vote of approval, together with a vote of confidence in the Government itself. This in spite of the repeated pledges of loyalty to the Allies by the Foreign Minister, Terestchenko, in spite of War Minister Kerensky's efforts for the reëstablishment of discipline in the army; actions, both, which the extremists in the Council might have easily challenged as a threat to "proletarian" democracy.

ADDITIONAL evidence that the Central Powers are earnestly pursuing their new peace campaign via Stockholm is furnished by the appointment, just reported from Copenhagen, of Ismail Djamboulat Bey as Turkish Minister to Sweden. Djamboulat is not a member of the inner ring of Turkish politics, which, with Enver Pasha at its head, originally brought about the alliance with Germany. The new envoy belongs to the liberal, Francophil wing of the Committee of Union and Progress, and for some time has been regarded with disfavor by the extremists in power. Not many months ago he was forced to resign his post in the Cabinet, on this account, and it was rumored at the time that he might be arrested and deported. His selection now for the Stockholm post would indicate that the Ottoman Government is getting ready for peace negotiations, and wishes to have a representative on the spot who is *persona grata* to the Entente. It does not in the least indicate that Turkey is about to make a separate peace. There seems to be no doubt that Germany's grip on the Empire is too strong for that. On the other hand, the Sublime Porte may wish to be suitably represented when the time comes to discuss Germany and Austria's rather premature offer of an open Dardanelles to Russia.

GEN. SMUTS, his eyes opened in the East African campaign to the possibilities in the huge native population "for the creation of the most powerful army the world has ever seen," calls for a clause in the treaty of peace forbidding the future military training of African natives. There speaks South African sensitiveness over the racial question, with knowledge of the prowess of natives in arms under European officers since 1914. At the beginning of 1915, German black troops forced the surrender of British infantry at Jasin in German East Africa, and in Kamerun 3,000 black soldiers fought for a year against more than double their number of Belgian, British, and French troops, and escaped into Spanish territory when their ammunition was gone. All the European nations have native soldiers in Africa, holding them primarily to suppress rebellions, but secondarily as defensive or offensive forces against the colonies of other nations; Belgium alone is said to have trained 30,000 blacks. The natives proved as loyal to Germany in middle Africa as to England in South Africa and to England and France in North Africa, and have fought against each

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other courageously. In considering the prohibition of military training, the humanitarian motive should have its part. It is as sorry a spectacle to see Africans killing one another as Poles killing one another.

"THE people," declared Lloyd George, "must not rush from one extreme to the other." Mustn't they! That would be to surrender one of their inalienable rights. If a man can't jump at conclusions, and be one day on the heights of joy and the next in a chasm of gloom, what has become of his boasted liberty? There appears to be an instinct in human nature, as affected by the modern press, which requires alternating oracles of hope and fear. We read on Monday that the submarines have sunk a lot of ships, and we are at once plunged into dejection and woe. There's no stopping those fiendish Germans. But on Tuesday we are told that the figures of the day before were all wrong, and instantly rush off in elation. Anything like a calm view of the whole question, taking it by and large, from month to month, seems too humdrum for our impetuous days. Talk of avoiding extremes—we of to-day fairly dote on them. Lloyd George may warn against it to his heart's content, but people will reply that, in the first place, there has never been a more violent rusher to extremes than he himself, and, secondly, that caution is a bore and waiting for the evidence not half so much fun as cocksureness.

THE attitude of the French-Canadians of Quebec is becoming more and more inexplicable. Their riotous opposition to the conscription for which Borden and the Conservatives have declared and which Laurier and the Liberals seem willing to support if only some political concessions accompany it, sets a climax to a record of indifference. Since the war began Quebec has furnished only a small fraction of its quota of volunteers, and lately the merest dribble has come from the Province. In the half month ending May 15, only twenty-one recruits offered in the whole recruiting division of Quebec, though special patriotic appeals were made in the cities and towns. Recruiting agents have been insulted and menaced near Montreal. Now that many Canadian leaders declare that the Dominion's army in Europe can be kept full and the home industries maintained intact only by Government control over the disposition of able-bodied males, demonstrators have smashed windows, soldiers returned from Europe have been attacked, and in some districts the authorities are reported to be considering the proclamation of martial law. French papers like *L'Evénement* are not definitely opposed to conscription; other papers, as *La Liberté*, and political leaders, like Seguin and Lavergne, are fighting it, as they have more or less covertly fought the voluntary enlistment of Canadians for overseas service. The ill feeling displayed has its roots in memories as old as the wars between France and England on this continent, and a more direct origin in the language controversy and the agitation of Bourassa.

THE system of indentured labor which has long humiliated India and disgraced certain British crown colonies is one of the sorry institutions that the war will banish from the earth. Austen Chamberlain, Secretary of State for India, has informed the Commons that, owing to the exigencies of war, indenturing had stopped and would not be revived. On March 22 the Viceroy, listening to a deputation which had come to Delhi "to plead the cause of the poor, helpless, and ignorant women who are taken from our villages and made the victims of the indenture system in the colonies," said that the traffic was dead, that he did not believe that it could ever be revived, and that if after the war Indian labor wished to seek better employment in the crown colonies, "we shall take care that the conditions are wholly different from those obtaining under the indenture system."

A SENSIBLE word on the matter of negro migration to the North is spoken by the *Florida Times-Union*, by way of reply to the suggestion that Georgia's Council of Defence request Federal aid in preventing further exodus of negro labor from that State. (Negro labor in the Chicago packing-plants has doubled in a year, and now constitutes a seventh of the total.) The question just now, it remarks, is what is best not for a State, but for the nation. Why does a negro get higher wages in the North than in Georgia? Either because he is worth more there or because he is not paid what he is worth in Georgia. The condition which makes him worth more in the North may be temporary, as with the munitions factories; the negro should know, too, that he can work in the open fewer days in the North than in the South, that the cost of living is higher in the North, that he is more likely to be ill there, and that white labor will supplant him at the first opportunity. On the other hand, the *Times-Union* is candid enough to declare that "there should be no color in a pay envelope."

A MOBILIZATION of historians for the war was inevitable. If any have feared a swarm of pamphleteers, they will be glad that some writers are to fix their eyes on objects of real usefulness. A National Board of Historical Service composed of Gaillard Hunt, Charles D. Hazen, Victor S. Clark, James T. Shotwell, F. J. Turner, and others, has been formed for the purpose of directing historical energies in the sanest directions. Historical writers will be needed, Prof. A. C. McLaughlin is pointing out for the Board, to keep the people informed and to aid in creating what they believe is a sound and wholesome public opinion; to satisfy the demand for correct, interpretative information upon special European problems, and to help historians of the future to understand the activity and psychology of the American nation during these days. One could wish that such a Board had plenary powers; there are facile historian-prophets exploiting the war whom we would gladly see assigned for the next five years to works on Kamchatkan history or Patagonia's foreign problems.

THE city of Washington's adoption of war-scarred Noyon as its foster-child marks the formal entry into everyday American life of the institution of Marraine and Filleul. Hitherto the kindly ties of this relationship bound only isolated Americans across the waste of waters to isolated French or Belgian soldiers. There were the difficulties of speech to be circumvented. Not every Frenchman or Belgian had the gift of divining what good intentions lay hidden in the obscure phraseology of our college French. On the other hand, few of our people visualized the hunger for comradeship to be satisfied, after months of loneliness in the trenches, even by written words, nor yet the pleasure for themselves to be derived from such a new bond. Somebody once said that we are born to our relatives, but are

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allowed to choose our friends. The selecting of a Filleul has, to a certain extent, the advantageous elements of both processes. There is an element of free-will and yet a delicious element of chance. You may think you have been corresponding for months with an elderly artillery officer, when, one fine day, a dashing young captain calls to make your acquaintance. And then, of course, the reverse may be the case. There is only one way to be on the safe side, the Washington way, and adopt, if not a whole town, at least a large family of Filleuls.

No Magic to Be Expected

IN his speech of farewell to the Washington newspaper men, Mr. Balfour expressed the opinion that the preparations for war already made in this country were "remarkable." This may be discounted as the amiable and flattering remark of a guest, appreciative of many courtesies received. We could name several able editors in the rural regions—including Boston—who hold a view diametrically opposite to that of Mr. Balfour. But in at least one matter he is on sure ground. Speaking of the vast war powers which Congress is asked to confer upon the President, he said that it was not surprising that time and discussion were required before the necessary bills could be passed. And then he asked the pregnant question: "Who is it that supposes that representative assemblies are going to make great and new departures in public policy solely at the waving of a wand?"

On this point, Mr. Balfour speaks out of long parliamentary experience. He knows what it is, as leader of the House of Commons, and also as head of the Government, to be exasperated by the delays, the much speaking, the wrangling, the complicated procedure, the infinite wearisomeness, of a representative assembly. But, being a philosopher, he also knows how inevitable such things are in a democracy, and how necessary are patience and hope and shrewd waiting for the opportunity, in dealing with them. Nor, it is plain, would this English statesman do injustice to the motives of the men in the American Congress who insist upon careful study of bills sent to them by the Executive; who are jealous about conferring colossal powers upon the President, even in time of war; and who wish to guard the jewels of liberty, at the same time that they would hold back nothing which the war makes it strictly necessary for the country to give.

It is not only an explanation of what may seem dilatory methods which Mr. Balfour gives. In its way, it is a note of friendly warning which he sounds. We Americans are to expect no magical transformations by war the conjurer. There will be many changes. Numberless activities will receive new direction. But these things may be only of the surface. The question is whether we should look for radical alterations of what is deepest in our national character and public life. If we do look for them, or think that even the furnace of war can in a trice turn out a United States totally different from what it has been, we shall be disappointed. Congress will go on much as before. The subjects of its debates will be novel, but its methods will remain much what we have known them to be. Nor will the people as a whole suddenly appear like newly minted coins. They will continue to be as they have been, capable of great sacrifices and heroisms, but also capable of pettinesses and querulous fault-finding. We shall not all be converted as if by magic. Those who have to work with or against popular feeling and its manifestations in the press and public gatherings and private attitude will not find it sea-changed overnight into something rich and strange. It will be the same old American temperament with which Lincoln had to find out how to get on. We shall encounter those who are sordid as well as many whose minds soar to higher things in their country's stress. There will be men who despair of the republic as well as multitudes who look to see its standard full high advanced.

In war, as in all life, thaumaturgy is not to be compared with hard work. There are always, to be sure, the lucky fellows. There are those who grasp the skirts of happy chance. Fortunate accidents may be taken advantage of by men who command ships or armies, as by those in business or the professions. Well for the man who sees his great opportunity when it comes. But these are the exceptional beings and unusual conditions. For most of us there is nothing like plodding away and keeping everlastingly at it. There is no other secret of success in conducting a great war. From the high command to the lowliest private, everybody must work like a horse. Nothing that study and taking pains and prudent foresight can supply must be omitted. The President is no more called upon to display zeal and industry in his special duties than is the banker or farmer in his. We shall not succeed by adopting any other motto than "It's dogged as does it." Faith placed in anything that is magical—whether it be the magic of figures in billions or patriotic oratory and writing by the square mile—will be a broken reed. The one gospel to preach is that of victory only through incessant labor.

The Censorship Muddle

EVERY new step taken at Washington in the matter of the press censorship seems to lead deeper into the mire. The latest is the promulgation by the Committee on Public Information of a set of rules for the guidance of newspapers. These are well enough. The press has already been voluntarily complying with them, and would continue to do so, on request, rules or no rules, statute or no statute. But in the explanations—or what is humorously called the "Elucidation"—given out in connection with the suggested regulations, there is much perilous stuff. This, it is stated, was submitted in "notes" by the Departments of State, War, and the Navy. It has nothing whatever to do with military news. What it dwells upon is the subjects which it is "dangerous" and "of service to the enemy" even to "discuss" in the press. Now, this is a case of censorship going to the official head and turning it. We think that any fair-minded man would agree to this who should give even slight consideration to the topics which by these regulations would be placed in the barred zone.

What are some of them? "Differences of opinion between the Allies and difficulties with neutral countries." Is it realized what this would rule out? It would prevent intelligent discussion of the situation in Russia. Between her, under her new Government, and her allies there has unquestionably sprung up a "difference of opinion." This is notorious. It has stood out in copious dispatches. It is adready the subject of diplomatic negotiations. It has been freely written about in the English and French press. But the

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American press must not even peep about it! Could there be nonsense more arrant? Similarly of "difficulties" with neutrals. Everybody knows what they are. Spain and Sweden and Holland and Denmark and Norway and Switzerland are hard put to it by the blockade and the submarines. The question of their supplies—of their being "rationed" by the Allies—has fairly reverberated in the news passed by the British Censor. The American Censor would also pass the news, but would prevent any editor from saying what he thought about it. This almost seems as if it were a deliberate attempt to make the censorship both hated and absurd.

Further we read: "Speculation about possible peace . . . may possess elements of danger, as peace reports may be of enemy origin, put out to weaken the combination against Germany." This is Government officials seeing ghosts. Is the new and avowed peace-formula of the Russian Government of enemy origin? And what about the restatement of the American position, which President Wilson has sent, or is to send, to Russia, and which, we are told, will shortly be published? In that there will be at least a hint about "possible peace": must American newspapers, while allowed to print the facts, be compelled to keep mum as oysters about them? The thing is preposterous.

Less important, but still suggestive of official floundering, is the warning about "submarine warfare news." To "publish details" would be against the Government policy. And this was issued almost on the very day when Admiral Lacaze stood up in the French Chamber and told the Deputies everything he knew about the submarines! The whole system of defence against them he set forth with an amount of detail which the American Administration would shrink from as treasonable. The clear-headed and lucid Frenchman said that it was impossible to keep such things secret. He declared that the German Government knew all about French devices, so that it was only a bit of silly pedantry to attempt to make of them a profound mystery. We could wish that some humbug-despising official at Washington would take an equally sensible view. There was, for example, the case of our destroyer squadron. Not a whisper, not a rumor, of its sailing was printed in the American press, yet the Germans found it out, and are said to have strewn mines in its track. One would say that an instance like that was a pretty good proof of the emptiness of the overweening pretensions of the censorship; on the contrary, it is seized upon to magnify them. Americans must not turn round in their tracks or allow an eyelash to flutter lest they "give aid and comfort to the Germans." Yet this wonderful censorship over what Americans shall read or say does not, like charity, begin at home. Talk about "differences of opinion"! The Administration had better look to suppressing those within its own official circle. On Monday we had Chairman Denman, of the Shipping Board, saying unkind things of Gen. Goethals and intimating that the enemies of wooden ships were enemies of their country. This particular controversy has probably been exaggerated; but it is clear that a mighty and all-wise censorship such as it is proposed to set up in Washington would have kept it under cover. So it would the indiscreet remarks about startling losses through the submarines, which were uttered a few weeks ago by Secretary Lane, and which he made haste to withdraw or correct. Such incidents irresistibly suggest the retort, "Censor, censor thyself."

The War Loan and the War Taxes

BOTH in and out of Congress, discussion of the impending war loan on the one hand, and of the proposed war taxes on the other, has already passed through several distinct phases. In the case of the loan, the fluctuation of sentiment through which the newspapers were at one moment claiming subscriptions for double the amount required, and at the next talking of doubtful prospects for covering the $2,000,000,000, represented merely the alternation of hasty impulses, always familiar in such matters. No doubt we shall have similar bursts of over-confidence and over-despondency between now and the closing of the subscription lists. Practical financiers, not so much subject to passing emotions, have at no time varied from their original opinion that the loan will be fully taken. Their only doubt has been over the questions by whom, in what way, and with what effect on the financial markets, the transaction would be closed.

It was clearly recognized that, in so far as the bonds were taken by the entire thrifty citizenship, through use of accumulated balances or accruing income, disturbance of the financial situation would be minimized. An energetic and organized campaign to enlist this popular support is under way. But precisely at that moment, the plans for war taxation, as proposed by the House Committee and amended by the House, begin to complicate matters.

Starting with a graduated supertax on large incomes, ranging from 6 to 45 per cent., it soon became evident that so heavy an exaction, at the very beginning of our participation in the war, would have two tendencies, both unfortunate. One was to curtail subscriptions to the war loan from some of the people heavily taxed. But the tendency also appeared to induce large sales of investment securities by individuals who preferred to shift their capital from those quarters into subscriptions for the non-taxable Government 3½ per cents. To the extent that this process, adopted in consequence of an excessively heavy supertax, would automatically work, it would obviously swell the applications for the loan. But so far as concerned the tax revenue, it would largely upset the estimates and defeat the purposes of the act. Even the resultant subscriptions to the loan, moreover, would be drawn from the very sources which, in the interest of business stability, ought not to be disturbed.

Very extensive liquidation in the general investment market, with a consequent heavy fall in prices, would be bound to have the triple result of unsettling the financial position, of cutting down normal applications for legitimate new offerings of securities, home and foreign, and, at the same time, of offering such increased inducements to the ordinary investor, through the lower price of railway and other outstanding bonds, as would reduce his participation in the Government loan subscriptions.

These are by no means conclusive arguments against a heavy supertax on large incomes; but they strongly indicate the wisdom of studying carefully the practical effects of such taxation at a given rate, rather than rushing blindly into it on general principles. Nor, from another point of view, can it be altogether wise to ignore the unfortunate influence which an income tax of 20 or 30 per cent. would be sure to have on charities which had been supported by the

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organized distribution of their surplus income by the rich.

We are laying stress on these considerations, because, though Congress has already begun to discover that certain other schedules of taxation proposed by the House Committee are likely to be either glaringly unjust or virtually unworkable, we are convinced that the idea of making good, through still larger income taxes, the void created by abandonment of other schedules is open to gravest criticism. The course of debate at Washington indicates that the wrongfulness of the retroactive income tax is increasingly recognized. This tax would fall with its most oppressive force, not on the great capitalist, but on the man of moderate means who had laid aside from his personal revenue the income tax assessed for 1916, and had already committed himself on that basis for his household and business expenditure of the present year.

There is more intelligent recognition of both the clumsiness and inequitable distribution of the "excess-profits tax" as now drawn up. Certain provisions of the increased postal charges are similarly now in question. It is impossible that the indiscriminate 10 per cent. increase in customs duties should be allowed to stand unchanged. Intelligent overhauling of the largely haphazard measure of the House Committee might undoubtedly disclose other sources of taxation, thus far overlooked. It is difficult to discover valid objection to the two-cent stamp tax on bank checks—extremely productive during the Spanish War period and certain to be much more so now.

Whether the estimated tax revenue of $1,800,000,000 could still be produced, after such eliminations and substitutions, may be doubted. The latest and hit-or-miss proposals of the House resulted confessedly from despair of making up that sum at the present time in any other way. But if this is so, we have no hesitation in declaring that the sum total to be raised in the coming year from taxes ought to be reduced. The allotment of 50 per cent. of annual war costs as the amount to be thus raised fixed a quite unprecedentedly high proportion. What is more to the point, it fixed that ratio at the very beginning of hostilities, before we were fairly in the war, and with no regard whatever for increased requirements of the future. Such a policy may have appealed to sentiment. But if it threatened, on examination of the case, to endanger the Government's other fiscal operations and at the same time to upset that financial stability on which depends our national prosperity, and therefore our capacity to finance the war effectively, then the Senate ought certainly to reduce it.

The Socialist Passports

THE action of the State Department in refusing passports to the American delegates to the Socialist conference at Stockholm is one of those cases which may be supported by specific reasons of prudence, propriety, and even legality, but which a higher reason nevertheless rejects. The first impression created is the painful one that democratic America will not grant to its citizens the freedom of thought and action which the German Government is allowing its Socialist delegates. The dilemma is there, whether we suppose that our conduct proceeds from mere disapproval of the possibilities at Stockholm or from fear. It does not add to our prestige that a difference of opinion can be made the excuse for repressive governmental action. It certainly does not add to the confident spirit in which a nation should face the great task which we have entered upon, that the American Government should show fear of having its hand forced by an international and unofficial party assembly. A proud assertion that the American people will do its duty to civilization in spite of all the Scheidemanns at Stockholm, that our rôle in the war will be decided by Congress and the President, and not by Mr. Hillquit and his associates, would have put the situation in its proper perspective. What the State Department should have done was to say to the Stockholm delegates: "You are engaged on a futile and annoying enterprise, but if you must go and talk, here are your passports."

The pertinence of the Logan act of 1799 from which Secretary Lansing derived his authority brings up a problem of subtle interpretation. The act prohibits intercourse between an American citizen and a foreign government "or any agent or officer thereof." The State Department has argued that the German Government, in issuing passports to Scheidemann and his friends, gives them a quasi-official status, and it might argue with some force that the Russian Socialists at Stockholm will be more than private individuals. They will represent the dominant governmental influence in Russia. The vice-president of the Council of Workers and Soldiers, Skobelev, who declared some time ago that he was willing to go to the most uncomfortable gathering-place imaginable to meet Scheidemann, if only peace would come out of it, is now a member of the Provisional Government at Petrograd. Even the question of intent specified by the Logan act, "to influence the measures or conduct of any foreign government in relation to any disputes or controversies with the United States," might be made to apply to the present situation. Russia is not engaged in disputes with the United States, but her Government is, as a matter of fact, negotiating with the Allies, including presumably ourselves, for a restatement of the terms of peace, and controversy might be read into that. Under this reasoning, Mr. Hillquit would be intruding on a subject to which President Wilson is reported to be giving his most serious consideration.

But to reason thus is to exaggerate the importance of the Stockholm conference. If that gathering were to represent, on the one hand, the unanimous sentiment of Socialists the world over, and if, on the other hand, its ideas were to stand out in sharp opposition to the ideas and purposes of all the Governments of the Entente, there might be cause for regarding the conference as a menace, or, at the least, a serious annoyance. But neither thing is true. Even as a Socialist assembly the conference lacks prestige. It has been repudiated by the official Socialist parties in England and France, and by an important section of Socialist opinion in the United States. The German delegates stand under suspicion. We need not go so far as to say that Scheidemann and his colleagues are acting as agents of the German Government. Against the fact that Scheidemann went to Italy for Bethmann-Hollweg at the beginning of the war may be set off his recent bold stand in the Reichstag, and the Socialist vote against the war budget. But even if we suspect Scheidemann's motives, there is no need to fear them overmuch. The visit of Scheidemann and Suedekum to Italy was followed by Italy's taking up arms against Germany; such powers of persuasion at Stockholm the Entente nations might regard with equanimity. As to the Russian Socialists, it is to be noted that a change has come

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over them, too, in the last fortnight. With Milyukov in power, the radical Skobelev might have gone to Stockholm in order to force the hand of the "bourgeois" at Petrograd. With the present Provisional Government actively working through official channels for a restatement of the Allied peace views, there is no such inducement for the Socialists to plunge into missionary work at Stockholm.

The plain fact is that events during the last fortnight have taken the wind out of the sails at Stockholm. Had the conference met early in May, there might have been reason to fear that it would bend its energies to a separate peace between Russia and the Central Powers. The idea of a separate peace is now dead. Had the conference met a fortnight ago it might have aligned itself for the Russian formula of no annexation and no indemnity up to the hilt, as against the resolute conviction in this country that there must be reparation to Belgium and Servia. To-day the Russian Government, Socialists and non-Socialists, are agreed that "no indemnity" does not exclude repayment to Belgium, Servia, even Rumania. When the conference meets it must face the fact that the Allied Governments are recasting their peace programme, and at the same time are determined upon a minimum programme for which they have won Socialist support. Premier Ribot's statement of what France expects was applauded by a unanimous Chamber. Such conditions will show the Stockholm conference just how far its influence can go. Mr. Hillquit's assertion that the purposes of the conference are the same as those outlined by President Wilson is recognition of the fact that the conference will have to play safe.

But if there is no particular use in a Socialist conference which professes to aim only at what the Governments of Russia and the United States are striving for, there is also no danger in it; and this is the reason why we should prefer to see our own Government willing to overlook a certain amount of possible petty annoyance for the sake of individual liberty.

Colleges and the War

IN one of the State universities of the Middle West, a short time ago, the majority of male students were suddenly notified that all classes were closed to them for the remainder of the college year. This was done by Executive order, apparently on the insistent advice of the Governor of the State. The assumption was that the country needed these young men in one or another form of service connected with the war. Such action is open to criticism. American colleges generally have shown a commendable readiness to meet the special demands of war conditions in a sensible and practical way. They have not organized themselves into recruiting camps, but they have put the situation calmly before their students, and have made special concessions to all who have felt it their duty to enlist. Similar concessions have been made to such as have wished to leave college early to engage, in good faith, in farm labor or other pursuits of special importance to the country in the present crisis. The usual form of athletics has almost universally given way to such elementary forms of military training as were feasible, and special courses of study bearing upon the needs of the hour have in many cases been introduced. All this has resulted in a good deal of confusion. Its tendency to depreciate the usual standards of college work has been clearly recognized, but this has been cheerfully endured in the hope that valuable service may be rendered to the Government.

It is not wise to lose sight of the fact, however, that the country has a future as well as a present. Recovery from the ravages of the present war may be more speedy than any previous experience would lead the world to believe. That possibility, however, lies in the intelligent leadership of men so trained as to be able to apply the best results of modern research to the problems involved, more generally and effectively than ever before. We mean by this not merely the narrow specialist or the "efficiency expert," though these will have their place, but the man of broadly trained intellect who can grapple with great problems of administration involving a knowledge of human nature as well as of material things—such problems, for example, as the late Lord Cromer attacked and mastered in Egypt. In the years to follow this war the world will need minds of this type urgently, and no American college should fail to realize that, as a college, it can render no higher service to the cause of the country and humanity than by training them while the war is going on. A large number of college students are too young for actual warfare, and should not be called into the service except as a last resort. The regular work of all our colleges should be maintained with all possible vigor, and parents should be encouraged now more than ever to give their children the advantage of a college education—and that kind of education which freshmen entering college next September will need in the years of peaceful upbuilding, not in conditions of warfare which may be over before their college days end.

The desire is general that this war shall be so managed as to interrupt the usual life of the nation in the least degree possible, in order that all the machinery necessary to prompt recovery may be in existence and normally at work while the war is in progress and when it shall end. One reason put forth for the adoption of selective conscription, rather than the volunteer method, for raising our armies is that it will lend itself more readily to the effecting of this object. The effort is to be made to pick our armies in such a way as to cripple seriously no single one of the great industries necessary to the normal life of the nation. But the college is one of those industries, and by no means among the less important.

Before a recent meeting of college heads at Washington, Secretary Baker himself urged vigorously the necessity of keeping the colleges going in full efficiency. There were a few college men present who were ready to throw college life wholly out of gear, but their panicky state of mind met with no favor among the great majority of their fellows, nor in official circles directly concerned with the efficient prosecution of the war. The average American farm might do for a camp ground, but if the war is to succeed and the country to prosper hereafter, the average farm must now give its attention with unusual vigor to doing its usual work. The average college might make a good recruiting station or training post, but it can best serve the country by putting its best efforts into the work for which it was founded. It will, of course, give liberally of its young life to the trenches, the navy, the ambulance work, and every other form of service needed; but it should keep its head level and go right on with the training of the intellect and character needed to pull civilization out of the abyss into which it has been plunged.

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War with Victory

I WONDER if enough attention is paid by neutrals—or those still only in rupture of diplomatic relations—to what belligerents say and think among themselves. When erratic Laurence Oliphant was correspondent of the London *Times* during the other German war against France, his editor telegraphed to him in Paris: "More news, less views." No doubt, it was Oliphant's own views to which the critical editor preferred the least grain of fact. So Oliphant understood it and passed his correspondence over to Blowitz and went off to found a new religion at the foot of Mount Carmel. Blowitz had more views than any man in Europe, but he had the knack of clothing with them the men and things of the day's news so that they slipped through the editor's hands like piety through poetry—

Where the Good looks piercingly down through the Fair.

Blowitz rapidly became something like a lay ambassador, and Bismarck respected his position in the newspaper world highly as an international asset. He would probably be impossible to-day, while Oliphant is no longer conceivable. Yet the world still moves, and there are views which are valid news. A conscientious correspondent ought to take the pains to communicate them, particularly when his letters, owing to submarines and all the rest, can be printed only many days after mere news is sure to have become stale and unprofitable. Then—who knows?—views may prove to be

The things that really last when men and times are past.

With formal criticism of President Wilson's words about peace and war Americans may not be greatly concerned. The same words in different countries like France and the United States often have not the same meaning, just as in ancient history the same red color was applied to soldiers' coats in England and to soldiers' trousers in France. I have gathered a few informal views when talking here and there with persons who have a right to views. Any hint of an interview would have made them talk like a book, and so I cannot give names, though they would warrant interviews. I have tried to become a channel of communication and nothing more—which is not easy when the talk is akin to the saying of the four and twenty elders:

And the nations were angry. . . .
And he gathered them together into a place called in the Hebrew tongue Armageddon.

Views of Armageddon in France, for some time backward and for some time to come, are likely to include President Wilson in their Book of Revelation.

"The President said 'Peace without victory' and not 'War without victory,'" was the discovery, after much contemplation, of the distinguished editor of one of the older Paris journals.

This has always represented the opinions and feelings of *la haute bourgeoisie*—that upper, educated middle class of France, like that of which Gladstone said it had made England what it is and to it he was proud to belong. To write for the journal of such a class has often been the straight, broad road to the French Academy. Whether we call them "highbrows" or Immortals, they are a thinking set and their views ought to be also news. One of them went on:

A war without victory would be a drawn battle—and peace after it would be one long, overwhelming victory for the Germans who made the war. They invaded Belgium and France when no one expected; they have done their best to destroy all possibility of industrial life in the most thriving industrial regions of the world, carrying off material and machinery and demolishing buildings and dooming the young to tuberculosis in their deportations, while the valid fathers and sons have been killed or made unfit for labor during the war. Meanwhile, their own industries are intact and reinforced by their pillage and their destruction of competition. If the war is without victory, peace will bring them a superiority so great that it will be complete victory for them. President Wilson uses legal speech and his words must be taken in the strictest sense. No, he has never said there should be war without victory—but peace without victory. That is what we are fighting for ourselves.

Like several other lapidary phrases of our President, "Peace without victory" has not been easy of digestion among the Allies—which means that it has rather stuck in their craws. It is one of the sayings which has led some scholars to suspect that Mr. Wilson reads Kant, who discoursed of Perpetual Peace. André Fribourg in *L'Opinion* and César Chabrun in the latest *Revue des Deux Mondes* both recall a first preliminary article of Kant's Perpetual Peace: "A treaty of peace shall not be considered to be genuinely such if it tacitly reserves matter for future war."

That, says M. Chabrun, is what President Wilson wishes to avoid by peace without victory after the present war. M. Fribourg goes back to the other war which left another peace:

To the German Empire the world owes the régime of the armed peace under whose burden it bent forty-four years—and owes to it now the catastrophe which deluges it with blood. That régime had its source in the act of violence committed in 1871 by the Prussian mailed fist. By force, against the will of inhabitants of Alsace-Lorraine and Frenchmen, three French departments were wrenched from their country and incorporated with Germany. It was the application of the old barbarian principle that inhabitants follow the lot of their land as serfs go with their glebe. Now Kant, in his preliminary article to the first section of Perpetual Peace, wrote:

"No state, great or small, should ever pass into the power of another, not by exchange, not by purchase or donation.

"To incorporate it with another state, like a mere graft, is to lower it from that moral person which it was to being a thing—and this is in contradiction with the idea of social contract without which right over a people is inconceivable."

The Frenchman cannot help adding: "Germans nowadays say that such propositions are bad Kant, and, at bottom, the philosopher would be to-day of their own opinion and would sign—as the 94th—their Intellectuals' Manifesto."

Paris editors whose view I have tried to give from passing talk would not deny that the war which founded the German Empire was with victory—but the long peace was one German victory as well. One of them gave his thought of the peace to come:

Peace without victory can have but one meaning—that the peace which is made shall not destroy permanently one of the parties to it. After vaunting their entrance into "fresh, joyous battle," when they drove confidently on Paris, Germans are now whimpering to neutrals that we wish to annihilate the German people. Most certainly we do wish to defeat forever the German people's will to make war on us or others—and that is their own Clausewitz's definition of victory. But that is not annihilation of the German people if they are willing to act like other peoples. We do wish the annihilation of Prussian Militarism—and if that is identified with the German people, it is because all Germans have suffered themselves to be inoculated with it since Prussia's peace with victory. They must unlearn it now—which will be indeed peace without victory of Germany.

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Just how war with victory is to bring about such unlearning does not yet appear. I had occasion a little later to talk with one of the militant Anarchists of twenty-five years ago. They were beginning then a counter-militarism with unexpected explosions against society as now constituted, and, though their campaign had results, it must be acknowledged that they failed. Whether their present peace during war means an unlearning also for them I do not divine. To my questions about this war of human society constituted in states, he answered wearily: "The Ideal—there must be something in it."

STODDARD DEWEY

Paris, March 3 (delayed)

The Fall of Count Tisza

THE resignation of the Tisza Ministry is an event the significance of which will be felt on all the battlefields of Europe. Exactly fifty years after the regained autonomy of Hungary was sealed by the coronation of Francis Joseph at Budapest, his successor to the crown of St. Stephen parts with the services of the Premier who has been the most powerful advocate of the alliance between the Hohenzollerns and the Hapsburgs. Count Tisza had staked his fate on the unshaken continuance of that alliance, and he has fallen. Ostensibly he resigned because the Emperor Charles refused to approve of his attitude concerning the reform of the franchise in the Hungarian kingdom, and it may well be that the voice of the various nationalities who are clamoring for a juster share in the Government than the Magyars have hitherto accorded them can no longer be suppressed; but more serious problems are confronting both halves of the monarchy to-day than even the question of universal manhood suffrage in Hungary.

Tisza, who returned to power as Premier in 1913, after having been in the Cabinet from 1903 to 1906, has been the subject of bitter opposition both before and since the outbreak of the war. He resumed office after Prime Minister Lukács had introduced, in 1912, a franchise bill the provisions of which would have doubled the electorate, but which still left the favored classes with so many privileges that the Radical party and the Socialists raised a fierce outcry against the Government's proposal. Tisza, who was then President of the Chamber, was the principal target of abuse, and after he became Premier he had to face a new Opposition party, organized by Count Andrássy, who was, and has since been, committed to the reform of the franchise. Tisza declared universal suffrage to be a national danger. He not unnaturally feared that the political equality of the various nationalities of Hungary would threaten Magyar hegemony. But the exigencies of war lead to strange avowals and disavowals. Tisza recently seemed to experience a sudden change of heart and professed in Parliament his affection for the non-Magyar races. "Nowhere in the world," he said, "is the principle of nationality applied so liberally as in the two states of the Dual Monarchy."

These idyllic conditions have not always prevailed either in Cisleithania or in Hungary. Few modern Magyar statesmen have consistently adhered to the principles of Deák and Eötvös, who labored honestly for a conciliatory policy towards non-Magyar nationalities and respected their languages and customs. Their enlightened views gave way in the seventies to the ruthlessly chauvinistic policy of the elder Tisza, and the Magyarization of the state has since gone on apace. The intolerance of the Government towards Parliamentary representatives of other races may be illustrated by an incident which occurred last February. A well-known Slovak Deputy, Father Juriga, who had suffered imprisonment for his nationalist principles, discussed a bill before the Chamber designed to perpetuate the memory of the heroes who had fallen in battle. In the course of his remarks he requested the House to permit him to read a letter written in the Slovak language by a soldier who had thanked the Minister of Education for having allowed, during the war, the study of the Slovak language in secondary schools. But after violent interruption on the part of the Opposition leaders, the Chamber ruled that not a single Slovak word could be spoken by any Deputy, and Juriga desisted from his purpose with the quiet remark: "I do not wish to create a scandal, and therefore content myself with pointing out that in this House quotations may be read in English and French, the languages of the enemy, but not in some of the languages of our own country."

The Germans within the limits of Hungary have on the whole bowed more meekly to the rule of the Magyar than the other nationalities. Indeed, their outward transformation into Magyars—the Saxons of Transylvania alone excepted—has in the large towns been rapid, and as they had no separatist aspirations, there has been little political friction between them and the dominant race. German names of places have disappeared from school geographies, and in many instances German patronymics have been gladly exchanged by their bearers for more sonorous Magyar ones. Yet the war has not drawn Magyars and Teutons closer to each other. Officially they may fraternize, organically they do not fuse. Hungarian and Austrian generals bore a distinguished part in the early battles, when German armies came to the rescue of their hard-pressed allies in the Carpathians and elsewhere, but the names of Kövess and Boehm-Ermolli are never mentioned when Germans sing the praises of Hindenburg and Mackensen. Nor have the South Slavs of the monarchy learned during the war to look with friendlier eyes to Berlin and Vienna than before. With the fate of Servia as a warning example before them, the loyalty of Serbo-Croats to the Hapsburgs and their willingness to place themselves under the ægis of the Hohenzollerns have been sorely tried. The Ruthenians of Galicia and Bukowina, the Morlaks of Dalmatia, the Slovenes of Carniola and Carinthia, the Rumans of Transylvania, the Italians of the Trentino and the Littoral —they all are dreaming of the independence promised them by the Entente Powers; what have Austria and Germany to offer them in case *they* are victorious? Even Bosnia and Herzegovina know the worst, and the best, of Austrian rule without German overlordship.

Tisza had originally not been particularly friendly to the German designs on Austria-Hungary, which have found expression in the plan of a "Mitteleuropa." He opposed the economic federation between the Central Powers and those European states which Germany was especially anxious to

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place under her wings. In truth, he distrusted more than one partner in the future Central Europe, and like all Magyar statesmen of the present day, who seek in every political combination solely the interest of their own race, he thought of the future, while the statesmen of Vienna thought chiefly of the present. Whether his dismissal from office now is due to his own recognition of the fact that the alliance between Hapsburgs and Hohenzollerns is tottering, or whether the Emperor Charles wishes to have a free hand in movements which might find in the fiery Hungarian a dangerous opponent, Tisza's fall presages in any case an unmistakable change in the relations between Germany and Austria-Hungary. The fact is that, though the two countries have been politically united since the outbreak of the war, they have in their military activity since their early common successes been gradually drifting apart. Germany is fighting her battles in France alone, as Austria is fighting hers in the Trentino and the Coast Districts. The fate of the monarchy is nearer to the heart of its ruler than the future of his German ally. As for his subjects, they are skeptical, and they were long forced to remain silent. Previous experiences in their history have taught all the peoples of the Empire not to build their hopes too firmly on military victories. In 1866 Austria humbled Italy in the sea-fight at Lissa, and was compelled to give up Venetia to her. She was crushed at Sadowa by Prussia, and Hungary gained her autonomy and Cisleithania a liberal Constitution. And to-day, with the fortunes of war still in the balance, Slavs, Rumans, and others look expectantly to a future that shall bring them, somehow, through some turn of affairs at home or abroad, their coveted self-government.

Whoever may be Tisza's successor, an element of unrest is now working in the Empire which is certain to influence the course of affairs. Vienna has served notice on Budapest that it intends to become once more the centre of political gravity, but whether the Government, with or without the sanction of the representatives of the people—it is reported that for the first time in more than three years the Reichsrath has been convened—will be able to strike out into new paths, internally as well as externally, remains to be seen. Too little is known of the new Emperor to warrant the assumption that he intends to rule with the help of the liberal Germans of Austria, but he certainly cannot permanently ignore them. Though ever since the fall of the "Auersperg Ministry," in 1879, they have been out of power, they are a factor to be reckoned with. Their voice is bound to be heard again, and its echoes will reach Berlin. The Austrian Germans will not forever follow whither Prussia shall lead. Once more, as so often in the past, the inherent antagonism between Austrians and Prussians manifests itself. The Germans of Lower and Upper Austria, of Salzburg, Styria, Carinthia, the Tyrol, and other Crown lands, who are mostly of purer Teutonic stock than the Prussians, are beginning to ask unpleasant questions. They are getting tired of being called Germanic brethren when it suits Prussian advantage to claim them, and to be repudiated when the wind blows from another quarter. As in politics so in literature. For many long years there seemed to be, in Grillparzer's words, a conspiracy against Austrian writers in Germany. She looked askance at the great dramatist himself, though she gradually learned to adopt him and other Austrians, just as she has adopted Swiss writers like Gottfried Keller and Konrad Ferdinand Meyer. That should hardly surprise us since present-day Germany has become broad enough even to claim Shakespeare as her own.

It must be said, in all fairness, that since the elder Andrássy's death, no Austrian statesman except Tisza has made it his task to promote a genuine alliance between Hapsburgs and Hohenzollerns. Baron Aehrenthal, the only Minister of Foreign Affairs in recent years who has left his impress on Austrian politics, was concerned purely with the aggrandizement of his own country—though in ways that proved disastrous in the end—and did not ask for Germany's consent for the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. But he fashioned his course closely after her ruthless *Realpolitik*. Austria has since chosen to identify herself still more completely with Prussia's foreign policy, heedless of the warning given to the Hapsburgs, years ago, by so stanch a defender of Prussian principles as Professor Delbrück. He wrote (*Preussische Jahrbücher*, Vol. 130): "The conception of nationality has attained in the nineteenth century throughout the world a power which it is absolutely useless to contend against. We have seen in the case of Prussia how little even a state of its gigantic strength can accomplish against a few million scattered Poles. The sooner German-Austrians make up their minds to recognize the equality of all nationalities, even the smallest, and the more willing they show themselves to make all the practical sacrifices inherent in such a recognition, the better it will be for them and for the German cause everywhere. The hope for such a consummation lies in Austria's relations to Hungary and in her foreign policy."

The task of Tisza's successor in the internal affairs of Hungary is clear enough—there can be no retreat from the principle of the equality of her nationalities; as to the future foreign policy of Austria, that, as well as the foreign policy of Germany, will be shaped by the issues of the present war.

GUSTAV POLLAK

For Man

WE shall not smite in wrath, our wrath
Is but man's wrath;
Only God's wrath is sufficient:
He shall repay.

We shall not smite for glory,
It is not ours.
Glory is theirs who saved us
The while we slept.

For Man we shall smite, taking part
Grimly, with men.
We shall go forth comrades, with men,
To pain and death:

To break in his face the sword blade
Of Hun and liar,
And give to God's mercy the fool
Who challenged Man.

FRANKLIN H. GIDDINGS

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Correspondence

MILITARISM AND AN ARMY

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: At this point of the world's history, it is interesting to note that Voltaire, in a paper entitled "Des Manières de Perdre et de Garder sa Liberté et de la Théocratie," suggests the origin of war, and concludes that "la guerre offensive a fait les premiers rois, et que la guerre défensive a fait les premières républiques." He makes a statement which can be pondered with advantage by the American people, who are too ready to confuse the name with the thing: "À mesure que les esprits se sont raffinés, on a traité les gouvernements comme les étoffes, dans lesquelles on a varié les fonds, les desseins, et les couleurs. Ainsi la monarchie d'Espagne est aussi différente de celle d'Angleterre que le climat. Celle de Pologne ne ressemble en rien à celle d'Angleterre. La république de Venise est le contraire de celle de Hollande."

He who pointed out that the difference between having an army and militarism was the difference between having lungs and tuberculosis did this country a great service. So long as the civilian or the enlisted man has the same rights before a court of law as an officer, we are not in danger of militarism—of the Prussian brand, at least. And the fact that Great Britain and Belgium have kings does not make them less democratic than we. The American people are given to catchwords and often fail to observe that "a rose by any other name would smell as sweet."

ROBERT WITHINGTON

Bloomington, Ind., May 21

A PROBLEM FOR THE MISSION TO RUSSIA

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of the most important matters that can be considered by the commission we are sending to Russia is the building of a railway from Trans-Caucasia to the Tigris River to connect the Russian grain fields with the Persian Gulf, which means the Mediterranean and Western Europe. Every one realizes the value of these fields when it is a question of Russia's making a separate peace, but little is being said about the value they will be to the Allies as soon as a line of communication shorter than the Trans-Siberian and safer than the North Sea can be established.

Three routes seem possible. (1.) The first would run from Erivan in Trans-Caucasia to Julfa on the Persian frontier, thence to Urumiah, over the mountains to Rowandez, and down the Great Zab to the Tigris below Mosul. A railway from Erivan to Julfa was planned some years ago and is even given on some maps as completed. From Julfa to the Tigris is about 350 miles. After leaving Urumiah, the way may be too mountainous for railway construction. The country is still partly in the hands of the Turks. If the mountains and the military situation allow it, this will be the best route, for, as soon as the Tigris is reached, water communication can be had all the way to Italy. (2.) A second route would be established by continuing the Erivan-Julfa railway to Tabriz, as the Russians were planning to do before the war, and thence by Sinna or Bidjar to Hamadan, where the ancient high-road is met that leads over the mountains through Khanikin to Bagdad. It is by this road that the Russians recently joined the British in Mesopotamia. It has the advantage of lying altogether in the hands of the Allies, but it is longer than the first route, covering about 650 miles from Julfa to Bagdad. (3.) A third route would run from Resht, a Persian port on the southeastern shore of the Caspian Sea, up the valley of the Sefid Rood to Kasbin and thence to Hamadan, Khanikin, and Bagdad. A railway was planned some years ago to follow the first part of this route, from the Caspian through the Elburz Mountains. The distance overland would be about 570 miles. The Volga River and the Caspian Sea would furnish easy communication between the grain fields and Resht.

It is improbable that any of these roads can be built this year, but if Germany gets through the winter and continues her submarine activities, it will be of the utmost importance next spring to distribute carefully among our allies the crops that will be grown in Russia. We Americans have the knowledge of railways, the money, the enterprise necessary for such an undertaking. The problem should be studied at once by experts and, if it is found that we can build the road, our Russian commission should arrange for us to do so with the least possible delay.

H. CARRINGTON LANCASTER

Amherst, Mass., May 16

A CORRECTION

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of the translation of the "Prometheus Bound" of Æschylus I note two errors. You state that the translator is Miss Marion Clyde Weir. The translator is a mere man. Of this I am quite certain, as I happen to be the man. You will find on the title page of the book in question the correct spelling of his name—Wier, not Weir, which is probably an oversight of your reviewer.

M. C. WIER

Ann Arbor, Mich., May 8

A WAR OF YOUTH

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A much-discussed subject to-day is the proper age limit for enlisted or drafted men and for their officers during the present crisis. In this connection, a few facts about the age of our soldiers in the Civil War may be pertinent. The figures are taken from a chapter by General Charles King, included in "The Photographic History of the Civil War."

According to his investigations, of 2,778,304 Union soldiers enlisted, over two million were not twenty-two years of age; 1,151,438 were not even nineteen. Of these, over 800,000 were seventeen or less, over 200,000 were no more than sixteen, and as many as 100,000 were not more than fifteen; while 300 boys of thirteen or under succeeded in getting mustered into the Federal service, among them 25 not more than ten. One little lad of eleven went out as a drummer and was soon after promoted to be a mounted orderly.

Although the regulations forbade carrying the musket before the eighteenth birthday, nothing was said about a sword; and so it resulted, observes General King, that "boys of sixteen and seventeen were found at the front wearing the shoulder-straps of lieutenants, some of them becoming famous in an army of famous men." Among these, for instance, were Lawton, of Indiana, commanding

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a regiment at the close of the war as lieutenant-colonel, when barely twenty.

MacArthur, of Wisconsin, was major and lieutenant-colonel while still eighteen. He retired from the regular army as lieutenant-general in 1909. Merritt was a general at twenty-seven, and Custer at twenty-three. The latter was mustered out of the volunteer service with the rank of major-general at twenty-six. Nelson Miles was also a boy-colonel, brigadier before he was twenty-five, and major-general the next year.

Verily, it was as to both sides a battle mainly between boys!

HORATIO S. WHITE

Cambridge, May 18

A GREEK SCHOLAR

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I became associated with Ginn Brothers, afterwards Ginn, Heath & Co. and Ginn & Co., forty-two years ago this spring, and one of my first duties was to become acquainted with their Harvard College editors and authors, including especially William D. Goodwin and John Williams White, of the Greek department, and Joseph H. Allen and James B. Greenough, of the Latin department. John Williams White was at that time exactly twenty-six years of age and held the office of tutor, becoming assistant professor in 1877 and professor in 1884. He told me at his own table something of his habit of study and authorship. He rose as a rule at seven in the morning and continued under pretty heavy pressure until midnight. His intensity of life was contagious, and in your editorial of May 17 you very properly say that "he was one of the few teachers who made Greek live." That was true both in the classroom and in the attractive textbooks which he prepared, and it was also illustrated by his arranging for the performance of "Oedipus" in Sanders Theatre. The enthusiasm of Professors Goodwin and White for Greek in their teaching and their textbooks emphasizes the tragedy of the fact that Greek has so nearly faded out of both secondary schools and colleges.

I called on Professor White in company with President J. W. Hoffman, recently elected to the headship of Ohio Wesleyan University, of which Professor White was a graduate, in March. Professor White had recently undergone a serious surgical operation, and while he was unable to articulate distinctly, his mind was perfectly clear, and he was busily engaged in special literary work, having retired from the classroom some time before. In a letter from him written April 2 referring to the fact that he and I seemed to be the sole survivors of Ginn & Co.'s staff of workers as they existed in 1875, he remarked that "it is cold comfort, but alas it seems to be true." I may also note in this connection that D. C. Heath, who came with Ginn Bros. a little before my engagement with them, ten years later severed his relations with them and established the publishing house of D. C. Heath & Co., and the original members of that firm have passed away. While I think of myself as a young man, not yet sixty-seven years of age, there is a sobering thought in the fact that in forty-two years there has been a total change in the personnel of the two great firms of Ginn & Co. and D. C. Heath & Co., and the authors of forty-two years ago have, I believe, passed away without exception.

EVERETT O. FISK

Boston, May 23

BOOKS

Phases of the Land-Tax Question

The Taxation of Land Value. A Study of Certain Discriminatory Taxes on Land. By Yetta Scheftel. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $2 net.

The Principles of Natural Taxation. Showing the Origin and Progress of Plans for the Payment of all Public Expenses from Economic Rent. By C. B. Fillebrown. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.

THESE two books are fairly representative of two opposite types of discussion of the land-tax question, both of which have been recently much in evidence. Miss Scheftel's volume is the result of what must have been a vast amount of painstaking research into the facts of land-tax legislation and its fiscal results during the past two-score years; its nearly five hundred generous-sized pages, while embodying much intelligent discussion, are, in large part, occupied with multitudinous and minute details of what has been done or attempted in Australasia, in Germany, in Kiao-chau, in England, in Canada. Mr. Fillebrown's book, on the other hand, centres upon the simple doctrine of the single tax, of which the equity and expediency are alike so self-evident to the author that one can but ascribe to an exceptional share of the milk of human kindness the mild and tolerant tone of his remarks when dealing with those who obstinately continue to dwell in outer darkness. That these include substantially all "the professors" and "the economists"—to whom, respectively, two chapters are devoted—makes Mr. Fillebrown's gentleness all the more remarkable.

That this contrast is in itself a contrast in point of merit, we do not wish by any means to imply. Much of the best work—in our judgment, indeed, most of the best work—that has been done in the field of economics has been characterized not by minuteness and complexity, but by simplicity and breadth. Good work can be done in both kinds. In each instance the question is whether the work is good in its kind; though a further consideration is necessary—as it is in all domains, but in the domain of economics above all. How "good" a work shall be regarded as being depends not only on how well the thing undertaken has been done, but on how much it is worth after it is done. In economic theory, quite as much as in the collection and analysis of economic facts, the question of the bearing of a study upon those elements of thought and action which really count has a fundamental importance that is too generally ignored.

Miss Scheftel's book is unquestionably an instance of work well done, and every reader will feel that it fully merited the $1,000 first prize awarded to it by the committee of eminent economists who act as judges in the annual competition instituted by Messrs. Hart, Schaffner & Marx. Nor can there be any doubt that the contribution is one of real utility. What has been so laboriously brought together, and presented in such orderly and convenient shape, is matter upon which many students of the land-tax question desire to be informed, and which is not easy of access in the scattered sources from which it has been gathered. The discussion, too, is not only intelligent, but thoroughly fair-minded. Not the least of its virtues is the constant willingness to admit that no conclusion can

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safely be drawn from the experience thus far accumulated. What is said, for instance (p. 292), of the effects of the land-taxes in Western Canada is typical of the comment throughout on like questions: "So remarkable has been the development of the towns, so great the influx of population, so favorable the industrial opportunities, so rich the natural resources, that the influences of the tax on land value, whether salutary or otherwise, have been scarcely noticeable or traceable." In a word, then, the book presents a copious array of useful facts, and in its discussion of them it is seldom, if ever, misleading.

But the question remains whether we get out of it all anything that is of genuine importance for the determination of public policy or for the settlement of theoretic doubts. To say that we do not infers no blame on the author; it bears rather on the rank to be assigned to the type of work represented than on that belonging to this particular representative of the type. There are economists not a few who look to minute study and classification of economic facts, of a kind exemplified in this study of land taxes, for such strengthening of theoretic insight and such increase of practical potency as the science stands in need of. That something of this expectation may be justified it is not necessary to deny; but one may well entertain a deep-seated suspicion that these researches will, for the most part, end in mere confirmation of what is evident from general principles. That a small tax will neither produce a large revenue nor effect great social changes; that an increment-tax levied only when land changes hands is not as trustworthy a source of revenue as one that is collected at stated intervals on the basis of assessed value; that, on the other hand, this latter tax involves greater administrative expense than the former—it requires no formidable array of statistical figures to establish conclusions like these; and, as already remarked, the light thrown by the statistics on the deeper questions involved is, with commendable honesty, declared by our author to be quite inconsiderable.

Mr. Fillebrown's book is divided into two parts. The first gives an account of the work of Henry George, of two of his followers, and of several preceding writers who propagated doctrines akin to that which is associated with his name. From Adam Smith apposite quotations are made pointing in this direction, and the position of John Stuart Mill is indicated with accuracy. An early advocate of "taking the whole of the taxes out of the rents of the soil, and thereby abolishing all other kinds of taxation whatever," was Patrick Edward Dove, to whom a brief chapter is devoted. The like is done for Edwin Burgess and Sir John Macdowell, and in the case of each of these predecessors of Henry George the extracts exhibit keenness of thought and generally, though not always, a good grasp of economic theory. Much more space than to any of these is given to two followers of Henry George, Father McGlynn and Thomas G. Shearman. The highly emotional statement of the grounds for a confiscatory single tax, contained in Father McGlynn's presentation of his case to Monsignor Satolli, is quoted without any indication on the part of Mr. Fillebrown of its superficial character from the standpoint of the economist. Mr. Shearman's exposition of "The Natural Tax" is reproduced at full length (34 closely printed pages), and upon it is bestowed the most extreme and abundant praise. It is, indeed, a remarkably strong and lucid piece of writing, and contains much that is shrewd as to the practical bearings of taxation, besides bringing out in sharp relief the central principle of the single tax. But that there is in it any special illumination of the subject regarded as a question either of economics or of ethics we cannot see.

The rôle of Henry George himself in the development of the single-tax movement is well and correctly stated by Mr. Fillebrown. "It was he who gave it the breath of life," and this was his "chief contribution to the movement." It is not too much to say, as our author does, that "some chapters of 'Progress and Poverty' were written in a spirit of almost apocalyptic fervor, and it was this that gave it wide currency. It was a beatific vision to the outclassed and disinherited." Henry George was a powerful controversialist and an eloquent advocate, and he was upheld in his zeal by the "conviction that he had made a discovery not only of a just and natural system of taxation, but also of a system which was to usher in a social and economic millennium." But of course Mr. Fillebrown does not say—what, thus far at least, substantially all economists of weight have felt compelled to conclude—that this system, however "natural" it may be, would, in so far as it was confiscatory, not be "just"; and that, just or unjust, it would be quite incapable of bringing about the "economic millennium" which George conceived must be its inevitable consequence.

The second part of Mr. Fillebrown's book contains the kind of polemic for the single tax with which readers of his former publications, and of the single-tax propaganda generally, are familiar. There is in it much that is plausible, much even that is sound; but there is also a great admixture of shallow assumption as well as an ignoring of vital difficulties. Upon these points, good and bad alike, we must refrain from commenting. But there is one point upon which Mr. Fillebrown insists again and again, both in the first and in the second part of his book, that we feel obliged to mention. He is so honest a writer that it is simply impossible to understand how he can insist as he does upon there being an essential difference between Henry George's proposed confiscation of the annual income derivable from land and the confiscation of the land itself. This insistence is in some instances quite pathetic, as where he expresses his keen regret that many of the devoted followers of Henry George persist in a "mistake" which the leader "frankly confessed and did his best to correct"; whereas the fact is that Henry George, so far as we know and so far as appears from this book, never confessed or corrected any "mistake" as to the principle. His proposal of the single tax was frankly made as a practically complete substitute for direct confiscation; and he claimed for it only greater expediency and less difficulty, not greater ethical justification, than would attach to outright confiscation.

The Meaning of Railway Valuation

Railroad Valuation. By Homer Bews Vanderblue. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $1.50.

DR. VANDERBLUE'S essay on "Railroad Valuation" is an interesting and valuable piece of criticism of a destructive kind. The chief complaint that the reviewer has to bring against it is that the criticism *is* destructive, and that the author has not seen fit to approach the prob-

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lem from the other side. It is all very well to expose the illogical nature of judicial opinions and to show the extent to which attenuated hypotheses and cloudy conjectures have done duty for "evidence" in "valuation" cases, and it is all very well done in this book. The available material has been well digested and its presentation is lucid and concise. Nevertheless, we cannot but wish that the author had introduced his discussion of detail by a positive and constructive statement of fundamental principles.

If we are to continue to rely on individual enterprise for our railway transportation in America, we must devise a *practical* system of regulation, especially of railway charges for service. The process of "valuation," as the method indicated by economic theory for that purpose, must be made practical—otherwise we shall have no measure of justice as between railway owners and the public. It is quite true that so long as our railway system is essentially dynamic in nature, requiring large amounts of new capital from year to year, the theoretical aspect of valuation must retire into the background in favor of the hard fact that the companies must bid in the open market for capital in competition with all other enterprises. But it will still remain on the stage and must ultimately play the dominant rôle. For this reason it seems to us that the all-important thing is to settle definitely the fundamental meaning that is to attach to "value" in the process of "valuation for rate adjustment"; once that is done, the questions of detail will be at least so much less difficult of solution in practice.

In "Smyth vs. Ames" the Supreme Court laid down in two sentences what has always seemed in our view the main principle of the matter. It said: "What the company is entitled to ask is a fair return upon the value of that which it employs for the public convenience. On the other hand, what the public is entitled to demand is that no more be exacted from it for the use of a public highway than the services rendered by it are reasonably worth." It is quite true that in enumerating the factors which *might* determine "value," the court mentioned virtually everything that could possibly enter into "value" for *any* purpose, and Dr. Vanderblue very properly directs attention to the illogical nature of the "rule" if the "rule" is to include this catalogue of factors. But the court expressly declined to define "value," and its list of factors is *not* part of the "rule." The "rule" is contained in the two sentences quoted above. Now the key to its meaning is to be found in giving to the word "worth" what seems to be its proper interpretation. The public is not to be charged more for service than such a sum as it would cost the public to perform the service for itself. In which case "value" would seem to be the *capital cost of reproducing the service* as performed at the time of "valuation." Such an interpretation seems to be consistent with economic justice, for it is not clear why the public should be asked to pay any one else much more for service than it would cost the public to perform it, nor why the public should ask any one else to do it for much less.

It is quite true that what Dr. Vanderblue urges against the methods of ascertaining "reproduction cost new less depreciation," etc., can be urged with equal force against any method of ascertaining "capital cost of reproducing service," but it is also true that this concept of "value" for rate-making obviates all confusion of thought as to such matters as "unearned increment" in land value and "intangibles," and furnishes a definite criterion of inclusion and exclusion so far as "value" factors are concerned.

Indian and Iranian Mythology

Mythology of All Races. Vol VI. Indian, by A. Berriedale Keith; Iranian, by Albert J. Carnoy. Boston: Marshall Jones Co.

READERS of the *Nation* have already been made acquainted with the somewhat ambitious aim of this series, which is to give a complete mythology of the world in thirteen volumes. The unlucky number might have been avoided by dividing the present, sixth, volume into two, for both Indian and Iranian mythologies are cramped in their present setting. The conjunction, however, has the advantage of indicating that Indian does not mean "Amerindian," as it might well do in an isolated title. Why, by the way, not use the classic Indic for what concerns India?

Of the two parts two hundred and fifty pages are given to Indian, one hundred to Iranian mythology, a fair division, though it cuts short the discussion of modern mythology, especially that of South India. There is an incomplete but sufficiently full bibliography, a profusion of excellent plates, and no index at all.

Professor Keith, a recognized authority, has laid out his Indian mythology on religious lines rather than in historical sequence. The Brahman precedes, as is proper; he starts out with the Rig Veda and marches on through the prose works, then through epic poetry, and later through that which is not prose and cannot be called poetry, the Puranas. Then appears the Buddhist, in India and Tibet, whose advent is really a thousand years earlier than the Puranic Brahman; and after him comes his contemporary, the Jain, whose myths being disposed of, there reappears the chastened Brahman of to-day, almost hidden under a load of non-Brahmanic legend. A weighty load too is this mythology of three thousand years and three great religions for any scholar to carry, and the more condensed the weightier!

In the interpretation of Vedic phenomenal gods Professor Keith is conservative, adopting without much discussion the usual view, for example, that Indra is a storm-god and the dragon is drought, as against the novel idea that this myth represents the sun overcoming winter. In general he is content to give the briefest statement as to the activities of the gods arranged as sky-gods, earth-gods, demons, etc. Totemism is not accepted for the Vedic Aryans; metempsychosis is uncertain. What strikes even the specialist as he glances over the familiar names of gods is the paucity of real mythology. A full pantheon, but how few myths as compared with those of Greece! Here the gods remain nearer to their first conception. Fire is still fire; sky is not yet anthropomorphized into Zeus; there is no Demeter sorrowing over her daughter, only Mother Earth, who "bears the burden," the goddess "broad and bright." In the second period arise to greatness the more modern figures, Shiva and Vishnu, and here begins the tale of the "descents" or Avatars and of the growth of female potencies. In this period too come the local deluge-story, the development of eschatology with its vivid view of hell, and the formal doctrine of the four ages, with the equally formal groupings of gods. Epic and Puranic mythology furnish more myths, with a more sentimental—or should one say human?—atmosphere. The devoted wife rescues her husband from the under-world. Vishnu is incarnated and appears as a roman-

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tic hero. Rama fights the fiends; Krishna dallies with the cow-girls, etc.

Buddhist mythology is chiefly concerned with the myth of Buddha himself, from his historical appearance as a man to his total disappearance as the Ur-Buddha (*âdibuddha*), without beginning or end. Brahmanic theology is still potent, and the Bodhisattvas become Shiva-like figures, their mythology being a form of theology. The author even swerves aside to discuss the old question as to whether the Christian Gospels were influenced by Buddhist legends. Jain mythology is remarkable for the prominence given to fairies, ghosts, etc., figures not new, but much magnified in importance; otherwise it is like Jain theology, closely connected with that of the Brahmans, till finally the Jina becomes a sort of God.

The least satisfactory part of Professor Keith's review is that concerning modern mythology. The South is poorly represented, the author being more at home in the North; also handbooks on the Southern mythology are less common. Yet even in the North it is not quite true that Indra is no longer invoked for rain; he is both invoked individually and expanded into a group of "seven Indras." In Bengal his picture is still hung upside down to induce him to rain, just as Spanish sailors used to lash a saint to the mast till he sent a breeze. Disregarded is the modern confusion between Birs and Pirs, which has converted Mohammedan saints into Hindu heroes. But omissions are to be expected in such a work as this, which indeed has succeeded wonderfully well in grazing almost every aspect of a very complex mythology.

Professor Carnoy has an easier task in telling the tale of Iranian (Persian) mythology, which had a shorter history and fewer branches. It begins with cosmogonic myths identical with those of India, though Professor Carnoy thinks many modifications are due to the environment, racial and meteorological. Here the Dog-star overcomes Drought and appears as a horse or a bull (for which there is no need to seek for a Semitic source); being aided by a three-legged ass, perhaps a foreign god tolerated by the Mazdeans. Creation myths are theological tracts. Ormuzd and Ahriman as good and evil contend together. Ormuzd produces first the Good Mind, and then the waters, derived from Anahita, a figure like (and perhaps drawn from) Nin Ella of Babylon, the Great and Pure Lady of Waters. Other stages of creation follow, after which comes an account of Mithra, and finally the creation of man. In all this the author follows closely the tradition of the older texts, with necessary interpretation of the more metaphorical passages. Both mythologies contain important figures practically identical, Yama-Yima, Soma-Haoma, etc. Both editors are agreed that Yama was perhaps the sun, though he is not called a god, and probably both editors are wrong. More important is the fact that Yima reappears as King Jamshid, a fact Walter Leaf should have considered before stating in his "Homer and History" that gods may come from men, but men never come from gods! Rustam is the last "historical" form of Karesaspa, the Hercules of Iran, who became the Roland of Firdausi.

Comparing Iranian with Indian myths, Professor Carnoy has some judicious remarks in his concluding chapter, pointing out that in Iran the creative faculty has been checked and the dualistic scheme into which they were fitted has made them monotonously similar. The myth becomes a tale and this is then duplicated, or several myths coalesce, with a general moralizing tendency as the characters become more and more human. An old god releases the waters (female); this becomes a hero converting to orthodoxy a group of girls. Both hero and girls thus become historical people, as dragons and other monsters become Turanian heretics. In the Shahnamah it is often impossible to determine whether we are dealing with a humanized nature-myth or some historical event.

Early Latin Manuscripts

Notae Latinae: An Account of Abbreviation in Latin MSS. of the Early Minuscule Period. By W. M. Lindsay. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

SINCE the history of abbreviations in Latin manuscripts, apparently a subject of merely technical interest, received new meaning by the brilliant investigations of Ludwig Traube, no one has been more active in collecting and explaining new data in this subject than Professor Lindsay. Whereas previous writers on palæography simply made lists of abbreviations as a convenience for readers of mediæval books, we are now concerned with the origins and development of these signs and the light that they throw on the growth of writing in general, on the transmission of the ancient authors in the early Middle Ages, and thus on the history of that period itself. From a small acorn a lofty oak has grown, or rather is growing. Professor Lindsay would be the first to declare that his collections are tentative and incomplete. He has assembled here with praiseworthy rapidity a mass of material indispensable to any worker in this field. Ten years from now a new edition of "Notae Latinae" will be demanded, to include the results of the further researches that it is bound to inspire.

Professor Lindsay modestly states that the present work is not a history. It at least looks forward to historical goals at every step, and raises most interesting historical problems. It includes *mémoires pour servir* gathered from all Latin manuscripts known to be of the eighth century and a sufficient representation of those written in the first half of the ninth. This is the period, from the middle of the eighth to the middle of the ninth century, when inventions and exchanges were most thriving; the systems of different schools met in conflict and the fittest survived. For the origins of abbreviations we go back to a much earlier time. Some of them started in Christian manuscripts, as Traube showed in his famous treatise, *Nomina Sacra*, from the symbols for the divine names like $\overline{\text{DS}}$ (*Deus*) and $\overline{\text{XPS}}$ (Christus); the intention was not to save space but to pay homage. These sacred symbols are contractions of the original words; the method generally found in ancient Pagan manuscripts is rather suspension. Thus *Dominus* applied to the Roman Emperor was abbreviated DOM.; applied to our Lord it is $\overline{\text{DNS}}$. The two systems soon merged, however, and a prolific variety had been developed in the late Imperial period. Most of our manuscripts dating from that time are splendid calligraphic affairs and permit hardly more than the abbreviation of *que* (Q.) and *-bus* (B.). Lindsay shows, however—and it is a point that palæographers must more and more take into account—that in the less elegant books, of which a few specimens in papyrus have been discovered and of which we have further evidence from other sources, a well-developed series of symbols was employed. These symbols did not

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pass out of scribes' recollections; they were constantly used in the humbler sort of texts. In the early Middle Ages they were found necessary for calligraphic scripts as well. Irish ingenuity, prompted by the scarcity of parchment, led the way to many inventions. Professor Lindsay distinguishes three stages in the history of most symbols, (1) the suspension stage, as in $\overline{n}$ for *nostro* or *nostris;* (2) the contraction-stage, as in $\overline{no}$ for *nostro*, $\overline{ns}$ for *nostris;* (3) the finishing stage, in which identical symbols for different words are distinguished—thus as $\overline{no}$ had come to mean either *nostro* or *non,* the invention of $\overline{nro}$ for the former removed all chance of ambiguity. When the full record of these humble details lies before us, we shall have a new clue not only to the development of writing, but to the spread of ancient culture in the early Middle Ages.

The book contains, under three chapters, a treatment of the common signs (*Notae Communes*) found in Great Britain and the Continent in the period under discussion; the *Nomina Sacra;* the *Notae Iuris,* one of the varieties of the ancient abbreviations; and various specimens of capricious abbreviation, which depends on the frequency of certain words in special texts. As the symbols are arranged alphabetically in each chapter, we are spared the necessity of an index. A list of the manuscripts from which the data have been derived is given, with brief descriptions and discussion of dates whenever necessary; manuscripts only partially examined are starred, in the hope that palæographers on their travels may supplement the information here given. In the second edition—the time is not yet ripe—there should be added a list of the monastic *scriptoria,* with an account of the characteristic symbols employed in each.

One matter of special interest on which Professor Lindsay's work casts incidental light is the condition of learning in Ireland from the fifth to the seventh century. According to the somewhat rosy view of Zimmer, the ancient authors, both Greek and Latin, were imported into Ireland in the fifth century or earlier, and ancient studies were cultivated there after the Anglo-Saxon invasion of the British Isles in the middle of the century. Thus shut off from the rest of the Western world, immune from the devastating waves of barbarian migration, Ireland cultivated its own plot undisturbed. Later, from the middle of the sixth century onward, it furnished missionary expeditions to darkest France and Germany, thus aiding in the restoration of ancient ideals. Recent critics of Zimmer would reduce Irish culture in this gloomy period to a minimum, regarding, for instance, the knowledge of Greek shown by Irish scholars in the reign of Charlemagne as due to a fresh importation from Italy and not to a survival of the language in Ireland since the fifth century. However, certain signs make it probable that we should return to something like Zimmer's view. Kuno Meyer in a lecture on "Learning in Ireland in the Fifth Century" (1913) published an important bit of historical evidence first noticed by Zimmer, which testifies that at the approach of the invading Huns, in the early fifth century, men of learning fled from Gaul to Ireland and greatly advanced the state of culture there. Meyer rightly calls on palæographers to examine the history of Irish script in the light of this new information. For if scholars migrated to Ireland in the fifth century, they brought with them books in the various scripts then known, from which the peculiar variety cultivated by Irish scribes from the seventh century on would descend. There are several approaches to this problem, one of which is opened by Lindsay's study of abbreviations. Here two facts are plain: first, that the Irish possessed some ancient system of abbreviation, and secondly, that they made extensive additions to it. It cannot be, as maintained in a recent theory, which Lindsay here upsets, that the Irish method was invented in the monastery of Bobbio with the help of the Italian books that the Irish found there in the seventh century; one must reckon with a longer history than that. We should have welcomed, in addition to the useful appendices that Lindsay has given, a list of the ancient abbreviations, compiled from all accessible sources, with which we could compare the system of the Irish and distinguish their own innovations from the ancient substratum. Some of the original symbols, Lindsay declares, would not have been understood in the ninth century. A considerable period of development lies between, based on the old but submitting to new, and particularly Irish, modifications. The Irish, therefore, it would seem, had in the fifth century a goodly variety of Latin manuscripts with the help of which they constructed, little by little, their peculiar system of abbreviation. This matter calls for further examination. It is only one among many inquiries which Lindsay's work suggests, and for the solution of which it offers a valuable collection of material. The book is dedicated, as is fit, to the memory of Ludwig Traube.

Notes

PUBLICATION of Isaac Don Levine's "The Russian Revolution" is announced for to-morrow by Harper & Brothers.

Moffat, Yard & Company announce for immediate publication "The A B C of Cooking" and "The War Tax Interpreted."

T. Fisher Unwin, of London, announces the publication of "The Invasion and the War in Belgium: From Liège to the Yser," by Léon van den Essen.

June 9 is the date of publication by Little, Brown & Company of "The Definite Object," by Jeffery Farnol, and "The Cinema Murder," by E. Phillips Oppenheim. Later in June this house will publish "Constitutional Conventions: Their Nature, Powers and Limitations," by Roger Sherman Hoar; "Food Preparedness for the United States," by Charles O'Brien, and a new edition of "The American Dramatist," by Montrose J. Moses.

The following volumes are announced for publication on Saturday by Houghton Mifflin Company: "Brothers in Arms," by E. Alexander Powell; "Through the Year with Thoreau," by Herbert W. Gleason; "Your National Parks," by Enos A. Mills; "Henry Thoreau as Remembered by a Young Friend," by Edward Waldo Emerson; "A History of Williams College," by Leverett W. Spring, and "How to Make the Garden Pay," by Edward Morrison and Charles Thomas Brues.

WE are requested to make the following announcement: "The Boston Athenæum intends to publish next winter an illustrated catalogue of all the known portraits of persons who were born abroad and settled in this country before the year 1701. There must be in the South and West portraits of these founders of our country that have not

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yet been photographed, and are not accessible through books. These pictures we are very anxious to have copied, not only for use in the catalogue, but also in order that the faces may not be lost through destruction of the originals." Communications should be addressed to C. K. Bolton, Library of the Boston Athenæum, Boston, Mass.

IN Mr. H. G. Wells as war correspondent one would naturally expect the concrete description of war to take a secondary place to social and moral reflection on war. It is the other way about in his "Italy, France and Britain" (Macmillan; $1.50). We find the first half of his story, dealing with actualities on the Italian and French fronts, in its remarkable exhibition of a gift for observation and vivid portrayal much more convincing than his comments on the psychological reactions of the belligerent nations to the war, or his own generalizations from the specific facts of modern combat. The difference is brought out in his account of the Zeppelins. In the gas-bag as opposed to the aeroplane he believes he finds an index to the German mind. The German "knew instinctively that he could not produce aviators to meet the western European; all his social instincts made him cling to the idea of a great motherly, an almost sow-like bag of wind above him." Plausible, but untrue, in face of the fact that Immelmann and Boelcke are in the very front rank of individual air-fighters. Take, on the other hand, the picture of a destroyed Zeppelin, falling on English soil:

> "First," they say, "you saw a little round red glow that spread. Then you saw the whole Zeppelin glowing. Oh, it was *beautiful.* Then it began to turn over and come down, and it flamed and pieces began to break away. And then down it came, leaving flaming pieces all up the sky. At last it was a pillar of fire eight thousand feet high. . . . Every one said 'Ooooo!' And then some one pointed out the little aeroplane lit up by the flare —such a leetle thing up there in the night."

The book ends, of course, on the new Wellsian note of the Kingdom of God. Concerning the coming of that kingdom the author is not over-confident. But by this time Mr. Wells—he speaks of himself as "abnormal only by reason of a certain mental rapidity"—may have reached certainty.

IT would be unfair to apply the test of exact prophecy to a book like Richardson Wright's "The Russians: An Interpretation" (Stokes; $1.50 net), written before the great upheaval of last March. Specific predictions have a way of going wrong, even when based on the most thorough and sympathetic understanding. What we do have a right to expect of any study dealing with the antecedents of a great event is that the given data shall make the after-event comprehensible. It is a vital fault in Mr. Wright's volume that not only does it fail to make us see a reason for the revolution, but that its spirit and context bear all against the possibility of what has actually come to pass. The author sets out to correct, as he tells us, the common impression of Russia as a land of anarchists and anti-Jewish pogroms, and he ends with very much like an apology for autocracy, bureaucracy, censorship, and pogroms. Either the desire for originality has led him to a wrong-headed justification of pretty nearly all the "dark forces" which are now a memory, or else he has too trustfully taken over the point of view of the very charming Bourbons whom one undoubtedly meets in Petrograd and on the de-luxe trains. In either case, the result is unfortunate. In his account of the ten years of parliamentary struggle since 1906, Mr. Wright shows very little sympathy for the aspirations or capacities of liberal Russia. His ideas on the radical revolutionary forces in the country are positively tragic. He still thinks that the strivings of the *Intelligentsia* could have been satisfied by full freedom to talk themselves into exhaustion, and he repeats the wearisome formula that if Russian university students played tennis and football, there would be no revolutionary agitation. He has given us something that comes very close to being a misinterpretation of the Russian people.

SEVERAL of the tales by Count Ilya Tolstoy collected in "Visions: Tales from the Russian" (New York: Pond; $1) are strongly suggestive of de Maupassant. "Without a Nose" has all of his concise and bitter irony, as "The Little Nurse" might represent him in his mood of, as it were, reluctant sympathy. Stories like "Too Late" and "One Scoundrel Less," on the other hand, are full of generous emotion, the emotion of a Russian and a Tolstoy. Of those tales and sketches which have to do directly with the present war, one is of especial interest. It is, says the author, "an attempt to answer the question that is asked me so often, 'What would your father say about the war if he were living to-day?'" Tolstoy, it seems, chose his burial place at a certain spot in the woods where his eldest brother had told him a fairy tale about a little green stick, said to be buried there, "on which is written the word that will render all men brothers and all people happy." The son pictures the spirit of his father rising from the grave, and, with the little green stick in his hand, faring forth among living men. Here and there he is able to whisper the magic word in the ear of some troubled soul, but the flaming, war-rent world at large is deaf to it, and he returns sadly to his resting-place. Nevertheless, "the fire will be extinguished. The sacred, coveted word will one day be heard. The little green stick is there; its power must manifest itself upon the earth." The prevailing phantom in the title sketch, "War Visions," is that of a peasant child, struck down by a random bullet as she goes to the well. The thing is told in a few words, and we pass on to a full description of one of those brutal and meaningless errors of war by which friend is slain by friend, and many human beings horribly sacrificed through the casual madness of one. "The fate of the vain and unhappy officer does not concern me," is the summing up. "I am not even disposed to blame him for his weakness. For this we can only pity a man. One is bound also to pity those who met death at his hands. . . . But for some reason or other I cannot help remembering the wounded little girl. There she lay, dying from loss of blood; there at the turning of the footpath, near the two little birch trees."

THE Hon. Stephen Coleridge, whose name gives him a prescriptive right in the realm of literature, has made an anthology with a difference. His volume, called "An Evening in My Library Among the English Poets" (Lane; $1.25 net), connects the various selections with a running comment on the authors or on the poems chosen, so that it can be read after the manner of an extended essay. Most of this commentary, though familiar in tone and never aiming at profundity, shows the taste and knowledge of a man born to read and enjoy; but occasionally there is

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an odd slip. It makes one rather gasp to hear that, though Pope "lampoons the pompous donkeys of his age, he does it genially and without malice"; it must be a kindly soul indeed that can see no malice in the "Dunciad" or in the satire of Hervey and Lady Mary Wortley Montagu. And it is queer sort of prosody that discovers "heroic couplets" in Young's "Night Thoughts." Occasionally, too, there is a touch of injustice in the selections given. Mr. Coleridge is within bounds in speaking of the "beastliness" of certain of the poems of Rupert Brooke. The two selections from that unfortunate young poet are simply beastly beyond dispute. But it would have been fairer to the dead to quote at least one of his finer sonnets on the war. Nevertheless, the anthology on the whole is fair, and something more than that. It includes poems from little-known authors, which any reader will be glad to have brought to his notice. The book leaves an impression in harmony with its title. On laying it down one feels as if one had really spent an evening with a cultivated gentleman of broad taste who, with pleasant discourse, had taken down one poet after another in random order and read the pages of his choice.

MR. JOYCE KILMER has gathered together his interviews with authors published in the New York *Times*, and given them the title of "Literature in the Making" (Harper; $1.40 net). Some of the talk is good, some of it so so. And there is any amount of instruction. Rex Beach, for instance, informs us that "the motion picture [*alias* "the movies"] is benefiting literature." Robert Chambers laments that the present demand in fiction "is for primitive and childish stuff." Harry Leon Wilson, who admits that he knows "little about literature," thinks "the dulness and insincerity of our novels are due to the taste of most of their readers—that is, to the taste of the women." Robert Herrick holds that our novelists are too "conscious of the sex impulse." George Barr McCutcheon warns the writer that he "should develop and complete his novel without a thought of its value or suitability to serial [*query*: printer's error for "serious"] purposes." John Erskine avows that parents now "have a definite idea of the practical value of a college education," and "send their sons to college intelligently." This practical sense is shown at Columbia by a remarkable literary renaissance among the students—as indicated by the fact that they have no literary magazine. This last statement sounds like a staggering paradox, but it is explained by the professor on the ground that his students are too busy supplying the regular magazines of the country with the products of their genius to think of any amateur performance. This is "literature in the making" with a vengeance. After this it is something of an anti-climax to learn from Miss Fannie Hurst (to whom the author gives his "critical approval") that the magazines are printing " 'chocolate-fudge' fiction."

SIR RABINDRANATH TAGORE'S books continue to fall like the leaves of Vallombrosa, and whatever may be said of him otherwise, no one can dispute his industry nor that of his disciples. The latest volume is entitled "My Reminiscences" (Macmillan; $1.50 net), a rambling account of the author's early life written in his fiftieth year before he started on a trip to Europe and America in 1912. The translator does not give his name, and apologizes for his work as being that of one not an original writer in the English language. If a Hindu by birth, he, like his master Tagore, has acquired a remarkably idiomatic sense of English. The book, though somewhat elusive in manner, presents an interesting picture of a boy's life in a large household before European customs had encroached on the native manner. It permits one to understand also the sort of intellectual and moral atmosphere that enveloped the budding poet. One sees how thoroughly the spiritual ferment and unrest of the West had penetrated into these circles of the Orient. Some of Sir Rabindranath's comments on the influence of English literature are particularly enlightening. The literary gods of the young Hindu were Shakespeare and Milton and Byron, and it was the passion of these authors that most stirred them.

> And yet our case was so different from that of Europe. There the excitability and impatience of bondage was a reflection from its history into its literature. Its expression was consistent with its feeling. The roaring of the storm was heard because a storm was really raging. The breeze therefrom that ruffled our little world sounded in reality but little above a murmur. Therein it failed to satisfy our minds, so that our attempts to imitate the blast of the hurricane led us easily into exaggeration—a tendency which still persists and may not prove easy of cure.
>
> And for this, the fact that in English literature the reticence of true art has not yet appeared, is responsible. Human emotion is only one of the ingredients of literature and not its end—which is the beauty of perfect fulness consisting in simplicity and restraint.

Sir Rabindranath's criticism is subtle, but one suspects that he himself is not aware of the degree to which, in his reaction against mere passionateness, he has sunk into the listless sentimentalism of an equally Occidental type of modern poetry. If he sees the harmful effects of English literature, for which it is, however, not entirely responsible, he pays a more ungrudging tribute to the breadth of English governmental control. Speaking of a society of wild young dilettantes of revolution to which he belonged, he says: "I firmly believe that if in those days Government had paraded a frightfulness born of suspicion, then the comedy which the youthful members of this association had been at might have turned into grim tragedy."

A READER consisting mainly of extracts from Central and South American newspapers has been published by Mr. E. L. C. Morse with the title "Spanish-American Life" (Scott, Foresman). Our southern neighbors are thus made to describe themselves. These selections are easy, well chosen, and interesting. The editor has travelled much in New Spain and observed closely. His attitude is as sympathetic as could be desired. The annotations are original and refreshingly unpedantic. The copious illustrations are taken mostly from Mr. Morse's own photographs. No better presentation of South American civilization has yet appeared in textbook form.

AN interesting problem is discussed in "Christianity and Nationalism in the Later Roman Empire," by E. L. Woodward (Longmans, Green; $1.25 net), *viz.*, "How far was the struggle between orthodoxy and heresy, in the later Roman Empire, really a political struggle between the central authorities of the Empire and the different nations of which the Empire was composed?" (Preface, p. vi.) The author finds that heresy and nationalism appeared together among the Donatists of Africa, the Monophysites of Syria and Egypt, and the Arian Gothic peoples of the West. He desires to ascertain, if possible, the order of importance of the intellectual and the political forces which were at work

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among them. And if he does not satisfy his readers by reaching a solution of the problem, he safeguards his essay from adverse criticism by frankly admitting that within such short compass he can do little more than review the main facts in the case. He hopes to carry forward the discussion in a future work. The problem with which our author is concerned is not altogether new. It has long been recognized that the controversies concerning the two natures in Christ, which filled the fifth century with disturbance, passed through two distinct phases, the first theological and the second political. Before the Council of Chalcedon the problem was one of doctrine; after that council it was one of politics. The church having agreed upon a definition of the two natures, it became the duty of the emperors to enforce it, and during this later period of the long struggle the so-called schismatic or national churches of the East emerged. Mr. Woodward, while not disposed to depreciate the importance of the doctrinal issues involved, invites his readers to consider whether after all the main issue was not between the imperial forces of centralization, on the one hand, and the divisive forces of nationality, on the other. He evidently inclines towards the opinion that national feeling often weighed more than theological speculation in determining the course of action to be pursued. In the present book we are taken no farther than the conclusion that, in the later empire, heresy and nationalism were intimately connected, and that it was not so much intellectual preference as a half-conscious political self-interest which caused the adoption of erroneous religious opinions by masses of the people somewhat loosely bound to the central government. Against the operation of such a disintegrating force neither catholic orthodoxy nor Roman imperialism in the East was able to stand, while in the West their partial victory was due to the apparent accident that the Franks, ultimately the dominant Western power, were baptized into the orthodox rather than the Arian faith.

THE Third Series of Bernhard Berenson's "The Study and Criticism of Italian Art" (Macmillan; $3.25) offers besides the reprinted papers a novelty and a sensation in a revaluation of Leonardo da Vinci. Mr. Berenson describes whimsically his gradual liberation from the spell of legend and his final view that Leonardo is barely a great artist, rather a charming draughtsman obfuscated by the discovery of counterpoise and chiaroscuro. We by no means share the individual appreciations, or depreciations, upon which Mr. Berenson's view is based. To him the Last Supper is restless in a sinister way, to us it is a tranquillizing masterpiece, of most perfect rhetoric. Nor do we find Mona Lisa repellent. As Mr. Kenyon Cox has lately pointed out, the mere delicacy and force of the modelling carry off the effect. Beyond this we are inclined to agree with Mr. Berenson that Leonardo has been overestimated, and that his later work is at least on the perilous brink of sophistication. In any case, he should be considered apart from the prolific and normal painters who are free from doubt and decadence. Mr. Berenson suggests rating Leonardo with Botticelli, which seems to ignore the relative difference of intelligence in the work, yet is after all fairer than the customary analogy with Raphael and Michelangelo. Whether we fully agree or not, Mr. Berenson has raised an interesting open question. Leonardo's fame as a painter stands on a very different basis from that of, say, Titian or Rubens. We value Leonardo quite as much for the legend of his genius as for its actual products. The remainder of Mr. Berenson's volume is given up to reprinted articles which are all concerned with the Early Venetian school. Most interesting, if not wholly convincing to one reader, is the ascription of the lovely St. Justine of the Bagatti Valsecchi collection, Milan, to Giovanni Bellini. A number of studio pieces by the same master are classified and dated, and a considerable addition is made to the works of Antonello da Messina. In particular Mr. Berenson believes that the stately Madonna at Vienna, which he formerly ascribed to Pseudo-Boccaccino, is really the central fragment of the famous *ancona* which Antonello painted in 1475 for the Church of San Cassiano, Venice. A recent cleaning of the panel shows that it is a fragment from some larger work and goes far to prove Mr. Berenson's hypothesis. The whole volume is good reading whether for the amateur or for the professional student. Especially instructive is the reduction of Dr. Bode's "Early Palma" at Berlin to its true estate of a Carpaccio school piece of date impossible for Palma Vecchio.

MARCHAND'S "A Careful Selection of Modern Parisian Slang" (Paris: Terquem), including many words from the argot of the trenches, will be found useful by the thousands of readers who follow the course of events in the French press. Even so staid a journal as the *Revue des Deux Mondes* in its war articles does not hesitate upon occasion to use a left-handed word or two. By judicious selection of type, the distinction at once catches the eye between the various classes brought together by the author. Of the seventy pages of the collection, twenty-seven are given to the vocabulary proper; the remainder consists of various lists, for example, of "popular" words classified by their formation, as *ard, -ot,* etc.; of "popular" sayings and abbreviations, as *sous, -off*. The author is scarcely justified in labelling his collection as "modern," for some of his entries have surely been in use for years. The really modern part of his book is the slang called into existence by the war. In saying that "l'argot parisien" must not be confounded with the "low slang" called *la langue verte,* the author goes too far. The *langue verte* is not all low, but if it is, the author is self-condemned, for some at least of the words he presents will be found in any respectable dictionary of that very vigorous branch of the French language.

Mushrooms and Preparedness

AT the present moment, when even the children are urged to coöperate with Nature in a peaceful campaign of preparedness, the public should be reminded of the ignored food values of our acres and acres of wild mushrooms. It is probable that every State in the Union wastes yearly many thousand dollars' worth of highly savory nutriment in its unknown and hence unpicked mushrooms, that vainly offer their toothsome and æsthetic charms on meadow, hill, and pasture throughout our broad land.

Although almost all European countries have used wild mushrooms for centuries, and even chanted their praises (as Horace did) in verse, thriftless America, until very recently, has left them wholly unhonored and unsung by chefs and bards alike. As a consequence, many a farmer

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who has "yanked out stumps," to use his own vernacular, has thrown away, clinging to those stumps, succulent mushrooms enough to provide a feast for a large family. Nature, to be sure, is partly at fault for the strange neglect of one of her dietetic dainties; for among a thousand kinds of mushrooms which she offers she includes several that are as poisonous as a rattlesnake's venom and several more that are doubtful and uncertain. Yet, after her usual feminine habit, Nature keeps men guessing which they may eat and live.

Nevertheless, there are hundreds of wild mushrooms (far superior in flavor to the mushroom of commerce) which may be identified by careful observers. Other observers should let them alone.

One of the most familiar and palatable of wild mushrooms is the fairy-ring (*Marasmius oreades*), which springs up on lawns and meadows and publishes its edibility by these signs: it is almost always found growing in circles, or semi-circles, as its name indicates. The cap of the fairy-ring is a grayish brown, or buffish gray, varying from one to one and a half inches in diameter. The little blade-like gills, under the cap, are creamy in color and round near the stem, which is slender, buff-colored, and from one and a half to three inches in length. There is no ring on the stem, and the flesh of the head is white and the spores white. All these marks should be carefully observed, as there is another mushroom closely resembling the fairy-ring, except that it has dark spores and gills of less delicate structure. Be sure your fairy grows with others in a ring before you risk it for food.

Like all mushrooms, the fairy-ring keeps its choicest flavor when broiled and served piping hot with butter and salt only. But when the caps are too small to broil conveniently they may be creamed after boiling half an hour. Barely enough water to take the thickening should be left in the pan, and only enough flour used to make the cream as thick as thin mucilage; otherwise, the delicate flavor of the mushroom is lost in a pasty and unpalatable indiscretion. The fairy-ring has a long season, from May till September.

A second, and the very safest of all wild mushrooms, is the puff-ball (*lycoperdon*) in all its varied sizes, from a tiny marble-shaped ball to the giant puff (*Calvatia maxima*) weighing several pounds. Yet even this safest mushroom, when very young, resembles others in their youthful button stage. When grown, however, there should be no difficulty in identifying any puff-ball. But it should never be eaten after the white flesh of the ball has begun to turn gray or blackish. This mushroom, also, after peeling and slicing, is better broiled than in any other way. One may look for these friendly bald-heads any time between the first of July and October.

The dark-brown "smoke" of puff-balls, which children love to puff out, is in reality a myriad of tiny spores, which might be puffed into any rich soil for future crops. The sower should select the largest kind of puff-ball for propagation, and his task will be simpler than the more laborious process of raising the market mushroom (*Agaricus campestris*). This is one of the cases where one may sow the wind (with a puff-ball) and not reap the whirlwind.

Among wild claimants for favor which appear in May (often around the roots of apple-trees) perhaps the most delicious is the morel (*Morchella deliciosa*). This is so odd a mushroom that its features are easy to remember. On the top of its stout, hollow stem is a buffish-colored sponge cap, cone-shaped, save for its blunted apex. This cap is covered with ridges and depressions, in and on which are the spore-sacs. As the morel matures, its buff shade turns to brown.

A fourth wild mushroom, so prolific and appetizing that it is worth a close study, is the brick-top (*Hypholoma sublateritium*). These mushrooms grow in large colonies and prefer the bases of decayed stumps and logs for their habitat, though they have also been found in open pasture-land. Their name gives their predominant color, especially at the centre of the caps, which are a paler yellow near the rim. In diameter, the caps measure from an inch to four inches. The stems are cream-colored, without rings, and vary from two and a half to four inches in length. The gills are creamy in the early stages of growth, but gradually turn to a grayish olive hue. The present writer has often gathered (and helped to eat) brick-tops in compact clumps that weighed a pound each. In flavor, the brick-top is nutty and self-justifying.

The oyster mushroom (*Pleurotus ostreatus*) is a fifth wild dainty, whose size makes a strong pragmatic claim for acquaintance. Its shape is quite as much like a large clam as like an oyster, and its gleaming whiteness adds to its attractiveness. These mushrooms grow overlapping one another on dead wood or half-decayed trees, and abound in September. Among other edible representatives of the same genus are the *Elm pleurotus* and the *Pleurotus sapidus*. Very perfect specimens of this genus, as well as of scores of other mushrooms, have often been shown by the Mycological Society in the Horticultural Building in Boston. On Mondays, throughout the mushroom season (from June till snowfall), this society takes specimens sent in, and labels them for its table of mushroom exhibits. A first-hand study of mushrooms at this table will give more certain knowledge of their significant points than one may gain from any book.

If *safety first* is to be adopted as a motto, the coral mushroom may possibly stand next to the puff-ball for the study and gastronomic experiments of the amateur. Yet among the seven genera of this fungus one still needs to use caution. The *clavariaceae* are found in bewildering variety of shades from cream or buff to deep yellow, pink, and violet, and the size of the coral fungus is as diverse as its hues. On the top of an old decayed stump in New Hampshire I once found a fine cluster of the edible golden clavaria, whose coral-shaped mass would have filled a two-quart basin. The coral mushrooms shrink more than almost any other kind when they are cooked; but what is left (like maple sugar) pays for the evaporation. The clavarias are found from July to middle September.

An eighth wild fungus, whose prolific habit is not at the expense of flavor, is the honey-mushroom, so named for its color (*Armillaria mellea*). Few mycological treatises have done justice to the merits of this mushroom, whose flavor suggests a delicious cross between nuts and young chicken (if it is well broiled), when it is meet for the pen of a Savarin. The honey mushroom has an affinity for decayed stumps and logs, especially those near bogs and swamps, where, in mammoth clumps, it illustrates the Shakespearean maxim,

> The strawberry grows underneath the nettle,
> And wholesome berries thrive and ripen best
> Neighbored by fruit of baser quality.

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Although the prevailing shade of this mushroom is buff, or honey-colored, the centre of the cap is seldom pure buff, but flecked with umber-tinted spots. The cap also bears tiny hairs and near its edge is striated. The cap diameter varies, with growth, from one to five inches and three-quarters. The flesh is white and very tender, the stem buff and spongy and sometimes hollow, with a ring or bracelet, which gives the name, *armillaria*. The gills are white or cream-colored and the spores white. It has no volva at the base.

In a pasture less than fourteen miles from Boston, I found dozens of clumps of the honey mushroom growing at the bases of stumps close to a bog. Several of these clusters were so luxuriant in size that each one would fill a half-peck measure.

It is difficult for one who has studied these fugitive constellations of the meadows and pastures to leave off with a tribute to only eight of them. This is especially true when one remembers the masked *tricholoma*, whose exquisite tints are themselves a fascinating lure, and the plain orange *amanita*, which the Romans called the "food of the gods." But this same *amanita* has so dangerous a relative in the spotted fly *amanita* (*Amanita muscaria*) and the white (*Amanita phalloides*) that for their sake the amateur mycologist is warned to be chary of the society of all the *amanita* tribe. The masked tricholoma, also, has kindred that hinder her own charms from winning their timely recognition.

But even these excerpts from two or three pages of Nature's mycological fairy-book, written from May till frost-time, may be enough to whet the interest of all those who have not let familiarity kill the precious gift of wonder. Quite aside from their utilitarian value as food, mushrooms, in all their marvellous forms, tints, and habits, yield other dividends of delight to the inward eye not dreamed of in the philosophy of Peter Bellians. With her rotation of mushrooms, as with that of birds and flowers, Nature makes an illustrated calendar from May to November, forever giving us shyly fascinating preachments on the German text, "Es ist immer gut etwas zu wissen." Can we doubt, indeed, that Nature made mushrooms to tease us out of thought—to beckon us on to as full a knowledge of these fantastic forms of life as men have won in their other botanical and chemical researches?

Already one German authority, Dr. Reuter, of Berlin, assures us that the albumens of mushrooms are perfectly digestible and that the high percentage of their carbohydrates adds to their nutritive value. The same authority asserts that the presence, in minute quantities, of other substances which act as stimulants to the appetite is a fact not to be overlooked.

Finally, however, let the last word be one of caution,* a word much needed, since it is not many years ago that a well-known periodical published an article in which the guileless reader was advised to eat without scruple the *boletus with yellow underneath its cap!* As if there were only one boletus and only one with yellow tubes! As a matter of fact, the boletus genus, which has no gills, but spongy looking tubes, *has more than a hundred different species.* Among them is the poisonous *Boletus Satanus*, whose tubes are just as yellow as many of the edible varieties. Its large size and handsome coloring make the boletus genus an alluring study, but the amateur mycologist should beware of it and confine his first studies to mushrooms with gills. As there are about five thousand tabulated species in this family, even the avid experimenter will not have a short tether.*

Let the rash novice write in pica and place over his mirror this motto: *When experimenting with mushrooms or matrimony—in all cases of doubt, don't.*

ELLEN BURNS SHERMAN

*If there are still any people who think "mushrooms are edible and toadstools poisonous," let it again be recorded that *toadstool is the popular name for mushroom. Hence are they one and the same.*

*To discover the color of the spores, cut off the stem and place the cap, with the gill side down, on a piece of white or dark paper. Cover it with a tumbler and leave it until the spores have made, in their own color, a circular print of themselves.

W. J. Courthope

THE death of W. J. Courthope in his seventy-fifth year can hardly affect many of his readers as the extinction of a personal force in letters. It will impress most of them rather as the retirement of a literary official who merged his personal force in the national spirit, and sustained with decorum the august and conservative traditions of English literature. Mr. Courthope followed in his career the high road of the English gentleman and scholar. Born in 1842, he was educated at Harrow and at Oxford, where he won the Newdigate prize for poetry, and was graduated with first-class honors in the classics. Firmly convinced that the duties of intellectual leadership and national service should be resolutely accepted by university men, he devoted his own powers to the Civil Service Commission and to literary scholarship. Like most born men of letters, he published a little verse: a volume of poems, "Ludibriae Lunae," in 1869, and an Aristophanic comedy, "The Paradise of Birds," in 1870, which contains in a footnote an interesting quotation from Darwin's new book, "The Origin of Species": "The goose seems to have a singularly inflexible organization." Mr. Courthope's own inflexible resistance to many of the new tendencies of his time seems neatly prophesied in the final couplet:

> Adieu! O chattering birds, say what you will,
> I, for my part, shall keep my theory still.

In his poetical theory, Mr. Courthope was a profoundly confirmed classicist. By reaction against the excesses of the romantic theory and practice he even returned with admiration to the pseudo-classicists, advocated a revival of the heroic couplet and ethical and satiric forms of verse, and, like Austin Dobson, flung his cap for polish and for Pope. No: Mr. Courthope probably lifted his hat to polish and to Pope.

In the absence of any public interest in a pseudo-classical revival, his own talent was perhaps inevitably diverted from the composition of poetry to criticism. Between 1871 and 1889 he brought out his elaborate edition of Pope's works in ten volumes. In 1882 he published the life of Addison in the English Men of Letters series. In 1885 he made a preliminary survey of the romantic period in his "Liberal Movement in English Literature." His academic tendencies were doubtless strengthened by his appointment in 1895 to the professorship of poetry at Oxford, a position

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which he held till 1901. Under the somewhat solemnizing influence of that appointment, he produced the two works upon which his reputation chiefly depends: "A History of English Poetry" in six volumes, 1895-1909, and "Life in Poetry: Law in Taste," 1901.

The "History of English Poetry" is on the whole an impressive and distinguished achievement. Its contribution to the mere unrelated facts of the subject, to the raw materials of literary history, is inconsiderable. Mr. Courthope made no pretensions of philological erudition; he was theoretically superior to the inconspicuous; he was not, like his burly predecessor, Thomas Warton, a redoubtable explorer of archives and garrets and unpublished manuscripts and neglected minor authors. His virtue consists in the philosophical composition of materials amassed by his predecessors. His leading idea is "the gradual and majestic growth of the British Empire out of the institutions of the Middle Ages." His estimate of individual authors, when he adheres strictly to his plan and his principles, is determined by the extent to which they reflect English public life and the national spirit and character. He offers little help towards the intimate appreciation of individuals or the understanding of eccentric talents; but he formulates the intellectual content of various epochs with vigor and traces the main currents with precision. Take it all in all, the work is of an imposing coherence. It is longer than any similar work in English carried to completion by a single hand. Its tone is manly, elevated, and public-spirited, as becomes the historian of the great poetry of a great nation.

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Classical training, academic responsibility, and long occupation with a national literature combined to produce in Mr. Courthope a powerful revulsion against the individualism prevalent in the greater part of the nineteenth century. When he undertook the elaboration of his critical principles, he found himself asking inveterately, What are the qualities that endure through the ages? He answered first of all: The qualities possessed by the great works of Greece and Rome; and he answered secondly, the qualities which constitute the characteristic spirit of a nation. His "Life in Poetry: Law in Taste" is a reasoned glorification of classical and national standards in an attempt to establish authority in the realm of æsthetics. "I take all great poetry," he says, "to be not so much what Plato thought it, the utterance of individual genius, half-inspired, half-insane, as the enduring voice of the soul and conscience of man living in society." The marks of a period of poetical decadence he enumerates as follows: the desertion of the Universal, the exaggeration of the Individual, the abdication by society of the right of judgment in questions of poetry and art. It is needless to add that he found the marks of poetical decadence in most of his contemporaries, for example, Browning and Whitman. The latter's metre, he says, "bears precisely the same relation to these universal laws of expression as the Mormon Church and the religion of Joseph Smith and Brigham Young bear to the doctrines of Catholic Christendom." "The vulgar idea of poetry is that it is something private, peculiar, and opposed to common-sense"—a hard saying for our New Poets, but well worthy of their consideration. While there is much that is sound and rectifying in Mr. Courthope's return to "universal" principles, his reliance upon them is altogether excessive when he asserts it as "certain" that "a critic who comes to the judgment of a modern work of imagination equipped with the knowledge of the varied operations of the universal law of rhetoric need not be doubtful of his right to decide with authority." This sounds like the windy emanation of a government bureau or a German professor of æsthetics; and a certain theoretical solidity coupled with a practical vacuousness and infructuousness is the danger involved in swearing unreflectively by Mr. Courthope.

It would be an interesting question to decide whether his political ideas were corollaries of his æsthetic principles or *vice versa*. There is no smack of "popularity" in either. He declares that the average Englishman of the middle class is averse to "submitting the freedom of his individual impulses to the control of any reasoned ideal, divine or human"; and that "the productive power of Liberty seems to have reached its natural limits." He asks with manifest inclination to answer in the negative whether democracy, "apart from hereditary monarchy," can solve the problems it has created. The antidote to which he points is an intenser nationalism. Here and there he sounds like a literary cosmopolitan; but if one listens closely, one discovers that his cosmos is the British Empire, his *orbis terrarum* the "imperial society"; and this to ears hearkening for the larger harmony detracts somewhat from the pleasure of passages so fine as this: "What binds men to each other is the memory of a common origin, the prospect of a common destiny, common perceptions of what is heroic in conduct, common instincts as to what is beautiful in art."

STUART P. SHERMAN

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Notes from the Capital

The Lady from Montana

"LADIES and gentlemen of the House of Representatives." That is what it sounded like when Mr. Balfour opened his recent address to the House. What he meant, doubtless, was to throw in a slight pause after the "Ladies"—a deferential acknowledgment of the presence of the multitude of women in the galleries; but the pause, if any, was so nearly indistinguishable that an enthusiastic suffragist who sat near me whispered: "He recognizes Jeannette Rankin as embodying the whole sex!" And well he might; for in spite of her unusual position and surroundings, she remains the typical woman from top to toe. The top is especially prominent, crowned as it is with a mass of brown hair slightly streaked with gray, worn *à la Pompadour* in a fashion that emphasizes its abundance. The next most noticeable feature is the nose, which is large, straight in outline, and fairly dominates the face, particularly in profile. The chin stands out well, but is round, and reduced in conspicuousness by a fulness of the cheeks which extends down to the line of the jaw. Her small, rather slight figure, clad in well-fitting garments which rumor credits her with making with her own hands, adds to her thoroughly feminine effect. The V-shaped opening at the neck, and the use of lace and tulle wherever a man would use flat linen stiff with starch, differentiate her completely from the background against which she is projected in her daily work. Strangers visiting Congress look for her before asking to be shown Champ Clark and "Uncle Joe" Cannon—a distinction in itself; and almost invariably their first remark is one of surprise that she has nothing of the Amazon in her appearance. Her face is mobile, her motions are lithe, and her manner has all the vivacity comportable with her obvious seriousness of purpose. Her voice has not, up to the hour of this writing, received a real test of effectiveness in a hall notorious for its bad acoustics when a debate is in full swing; but her responses on roll-call, while distinct enough for all practical needs, lack the ringing quality which arrests attention in this tumultuous body.

Next to her unmasculine make-up, what astonishes most new observers is the manner in which Miss Rankin is treated by the men among whom she is thrown. Not even the cowboys of her home State—a class who hide a rare strain of chivalry behind a rough exterior—could manifest more respect for her womanhood than these rough-and-tumble Congressmen. In any situation involving precedence, everybody stands aside for her to pass. During a session she is seldom or never alone: some man takes a seat beside her and falls into a whispered conversation, or she seeks out one whom she wishes to consult about a pending measure, and soon their heads are close together. In two respects at least she is setting an excellent example to her colleagues: in prompt and regular attendance, and in keeping track of what is going on. If amendments are coming in thick and fast, as often happens when the bill under consideration is one which the House is ready to accept in spirit, but wishes to modify in form, she keeps a pad and pencil always in hand and conscientiously jots down the proposed changes in phraseology. From the present outlook it would not be surprising if her influence produced a real change in the behavior of the House in more ways than in mere personal gallantry; for the rudest fighters can hardly fail to take note of the presence of a woman among them, or to be reminded of the fact if momentarily they forget it.

Of course, it is unfortunate that Miss Rankin's first important vote on the floor should have been one in which she could not with an easy conscience voice the prevailing sentiment of her own district or of the country at large, for her attitude on the war issue can never be expunged from the record, however earnestly she may devote her energies hereafter to the national cause. Whether she was visibly and audibly overcome by her emotions—a question on which much stress is laid in certain quarters—we may leave the historians to decide among themselves. Male lawmakers have occasionally exhibited emotional weakness under equally trying conditions, without provoking invidious comments on the capacity of their sex as a whole. Miss Rankin having happened to be the first and only woman in Congress when the war crisis arose, it is far too soon to draw sweeping conclusions on the wisdom of our latest suffrage experiment. A pleasanter thing to remember is that, in a State which gave the Democratic Presidential ticket a vote 50 per cent. larger than the Republican, she carried, as a Republican, one of the two representative districts by a plurality of more than six thousand, and with a campaign expenditure of less than seven hundred dollars.

Although sufficient mention has been made already, perhaps, of Miss Rankin's feminine appearance, it would be a pity to pass over, in this connection, her evident love of children and her attraction for them. Several members, trading on a traditional courtesy of the House, brought with them to the reception in honor of Balfour the young folk of their families, and some of these speedily made their way to the Lady from Montana and took possession of her. She had them sitting in her lap or snuggling against her while the formal meeting was in progress, and, when the handshaking procession formed, one or two clung to her. She smiles a good deal at all times, but seemed particularly beaming when chatting with her little friends. Nor would this thumbnail sketch be faithful to nature if it omitted to add that our fair young pioneer carries with her, while engaged in the business of lawmaking not less than in her other occupations, that characteristic emblem of her sex, the tiny handbag. It has never been my privilege to peep into it, but various indications suggest the guess that it contains the familiar equipment of purse and keys, mirror and handkerchief—and p-wd-r-p-ff!

TATTLER

Finance

Facts, Theories, and Delusions of Current Finance

AT times when prices were rising with particular violence on the Stock Exchange, this past week, the word began to be passed through Wall Street that this was an "inflation market." Wall Street itself was not very clear as to what it meant by that expression. It is true that in the United States of 1863, and at least in the Russia of 1916 and 1917, war led to such excessive issues of paper money, under Government auspices, that not only were all prices

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affected, but "paper wealth" and reckless personal extravagance prevailed. But no possibility is more remote than paper money issues of that sort, in the present instance.

President Wilson, in his war speech of April 2, declared that it was the duty of Congress "to protect our people, so far as we may, against the very serious hardships and evils which would be likely to arise out of the inflation which would be produced by vast loans." This was not wholly plain. Inflation of prices through a belligerent government's prodigious purchases of war material is familiar—the Allies' purchases from us created that condition in the United States a year ago. That, however, was not because of war loans, but because of war expenditure. The Wall Street idea appeared in a more or less obscure way to contemplate either inflation of credit or inflation of the currency.

Bank credits will undoubtedly be increased by the loan, because large amounts will undoubtedly be borrowed by individuals to make subscriptions. Yet that expansion alone would not make facilities for easy credit to other borrowers any greater than they are to-day. Conceivably, it might reduce them materially, through cutting down surplus bank reserves and raising money rates. Even the influence on the markets of the huge Government buying might be checked, not helped, by the financing of the war loan. It was the gold imports from Canada and Europe which supported in 1916 and 1915 both the large bank credits arising from the war loans to the Allies, and the higher prices in the security and commodity markets.

If loans placed at the banks to raise money for the purchase of the war bonds were to be of enormous magnitude; if such loans were all to be "rediscounted" at the Federal Reserve Banks; if the member banks were then to count as lawful reserves all of the resultant credits at the Federal Banks, and if they were next to expand their own loans to the legal limit, on the basis of such reserves—then a great inflation of credit might result, affecting even speculative borrowers. But whether such a result is probable admits of very considerable doubt. There was nothing to prevent the banks, a year ago, from doing exactly the same thing through presenting their ordinary loans for rediscount, but they did not do it, and even last week, with more than $1,000,000,000 total assets, the twelve Reserve Banks had only $47,500,000 invested in rediscounted bills of member institutions. What will happen in this direction as the war goes on, we shall have to wait to see. Predictions as to exactly what will happen in the field of general finance and credit, after an immensely expensive war is under way, are always hazardous.

It must frankly be said that the Washington dispatches, regarding the financial plans and purposes of the Government, have been of a character which might encourage the most reckless inferences. Whose fault it was that such stuff should have been sent to the newspapers as the recent dispatches about cancelling all private contracts at the steel mills to make room for Government shipbuilding orders, about a Government commission with purchases of ten billion dollars to be made forthwith, and about measures to be taken by the Treasury to "regulate" gold exports to Japan, it is impossible for people away from Washington to say.

These announcements may have been made possible by thick-headed press correspondents or by reckless bureau officers or subordinates. Whoever was responsible, the series of statements of the sort suggested to sober financiers that, whatever may be the merits of the censorship controversy in itself, a formal or informal censorship against sending such mischievous nonsense on financial questions might very profitably be established—at least to the extent of a personal reprimand to the offending correspondent. These particular performances would have been considerably better suited to the publicity departments of Bulgaria or Montenegro than to those of the United States.

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A very great deal of our preparations for war—political, military, and financial—has been carried out with calmness and judgment. But in some directions there has been evidence that impulse dominates. In the matter of finance particularly, one can see rather plainly, now and then, the continuing influence of that excitable rushing to conclusions which led our newspapers and some of our public men, when our war with Germany had first become inevitable, to throw out the wildest and most extravagant proposals. It seemed at the time as if heads had been turned since 1914 by their "thinking in thousands of millions," and as if, while some impulsive people had convinced themselves that America's fund of idle capital was wholly inexhaustible, others were determined on general principles to fix upon the United States, with the smallest possible delay, the full amount of war debt and war taxes, at which Europe had arrived after nearly three years of war.

The economic power of this country, its readily available resources, and its accumulated wealth of the past two years are undoubtedly of such magnitude that people of ill-regulated imagination may perhaps be pardoned for rushing to the extreme of inference. It is also true that the situation rightly called for immediate and enormous drafts on that reserve fund and that the requisitions could be met without impairing national prosperity. But prudent and far-seeing judgment is none the less required for managing such a situation, and it scarcely need be said that to the extent that hasty impulse were allowed to dominate, we should merely be preparing for unpleasant economic stumbling-blocks later on.

That this mood may be passing, the announcement of the Senate's purpose to overhaul the half-baked tax bill of the House is reassuring evidence. It would be still more gratifying if the Washington press dispatches should resume the habit of talking the language of plain fact and common-sense.

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Summary of the News

LAST week saw the opening in earnest of the nation-wide campaign in behalf of the "Liberty Loan." No comment on the matter is required other than a reiteration of the advice which the *Nation* presumed to offer last week on its front cover, that it is the duty of everybody to purchase a bond who is by any means able to do so.

MR. BALFOUR, speaking last week before the National Press Club on the eve of his departure for Canada, characterized the progress made by this country in its preparations for war as "remarkable." We have attempted to show, week by week, in face of the gloom of a considerable section of the press, that, after all, the Administration is not hopelessly inefficient, nor is Congress utterly inept; that certain steps forward have been taken each week since April 6, and that an organization fit for war is gradually, if laboriously, being evolved. Mr. Balfour's words are welcome as an antidote to much needless pessimism.

THIS is not to say that everything goes with the precision of clockwork. It is disappointing, for instance, to find that the Shipping Board, so far from having settled down to its task of creating a new merchant fleet, has apparently been the victim of internal dissensions. This is not the place to go into the merits of the situation revealed by Gen. Goethals, in a speech made at a dinner of leading steel manufacturers on May 25, and by the reply of Mr. Denman, Chairman of the Shipping Board, given out on Sunday. Gen. Goethals indulged in some severe criticism of the Shipping Board generally, and announced his conviction that the much-heralded plan of creating a fleet of wooden merchant ships was impracticable. Mr. Denman replied with a defence of the Board, and insisted on the necessity of the wooden ships. One part of Mr. Denman's statement the country will echo cordially —that a controversy between Gen. Goethals and the Shipping Board is the last thing that is desirable.

FOODSTUFFS and necessary supplies generally were dealt with in a drastic bill introduced into the House last week, the provisions of which were explained in the papers of May 23. The scope of the proposed measure is epitomized in the words of the preamble: "A bill to provide further for the national security and defence by encouraging agriculture and regulating the marketing and distribution of foods and other necessaries of life." It should be recorded here that Mr. Hoover, according to dispatches from Washington, is strongly opposed to the movement to inject prohibition, as an ethical issue, into the contemplated food legislation. Full authority over all cereals used in the manufacture of liquors is given to the Government in the new bill, which, in Mr. Hoover's view, should be regarded purely as a war measure and should not be complicated by the introduction of other issues.

CENSORSHIP provisions of the Espionage bill are still the subject of bitter strife in Congress. Contrary to general expectation of what the Administration's course would be, the President last week brought strong pressure to bear to have the censorship amendment written into the bill before it passed out of conference. A modified form of the amendment, resembling the Cummins-Thomas amendment, but providing for trial by jury, was worked out by the conferrees at the end of last week, but the general opinion in Washington seems to be that the opposition in House and Senate is still sufficiently strong to defeat the Administration's demands. We comment elsewhere upon the somewhat elusive recommendations for regulating the press given out by Mr. George Creel, chairman of the Committee on Public Information, on Sunday.

DISPATCHES from Washington of May 23 contained the outlines of a scheme, which is understood to be nearing completion, whereby the purchasing of all supplies, both for this Government and for the Allies, will be centralized in a single bureau under one head. Another important piece of legislation passed by the Senate last week was the bill providing for the creation of a Bureau of War Risk Insurance in the Treasury Department, with an appropriation of $50,000,000. The War Revenue bill, passed by the House with little modification but with the pious hope that what had been left undone there would be done by the Senate, has been under discussion by that body for the past week, with the result that numerous amendments of some of the most objectionable features have been made.

THE proposed International Socialist Conference at Stockholm, to which Herr Scheidemann fares forth with the unofficial blessing of the German Imperial Government, will not enjoy the benefit of the views of American delegates. To the three chosen ones, Hillquit, Lee, and Berger—chosen by a section of the Socialist party in America and denounced as pro-German by another section—passports were refused last week by Secretary Lansing on the ground that unauthorized individuals from this country may not confer with delegates who have at any rate a quasi-official status from a hostile Government.

PRESIDENT WILSON has again found himself the victim of an extemporaneous phrase. The President's remark at a recent Red Cross meeting that we had "gone into the war with no special grievance of our own," torn from its context, received in Congress and elsewhere the obvious interpretation which the words by themselves might bear. Much ado and a lot of letter-writing was required before the proper explanation was driven home to perverse minds that what the President had meant was that our grievance against Germany was not special to ourselves but common to civilization.

IN this connection we may record that recent dispatches from Washington have expressed the opinion that the President may respond to the apparent desire in Russia for a restatement by the Allies of their war aims by addressing a note on the subject to the Russian Government. Any such note would, of course, express simply the views of the United States. A re-definition of our aims is thought in some quarters to be desirable in view of Russia's declaration of "no annexations and no indemnities," of the German Chancellor's recent speech, and of Premier Ribot's pronouncement on Alsace-Lorraine in the French Chamber on May 22. In general discussion of the subject the obvious point is made that "no indemnities" does not exclude compensation for ravaged territories, and "no annexations" can hardly be taken as refusal of deliverance to nationalities at present under a detested yoke.

NEWS from Russia has not been plentiful, but is on the whole encouraging. M. Tereschtenko, Foreign Minister, in a statement on May 22, reiterated Russia's faith to her allies, and M. Kerensky, Minister of war, appears to be getting a grip on the army. Another hopeful sign is the sentiment expressed at the All-Russia Council of Peasant Deputies, which has been sitting in Petrograd and has apparently won considerable influence there. The Council is against any separate peace, and urges the army to fight.

MEMBERS of the Italian Mission to the United States have been in this country for some time, but the official welcome of the mission to Washington only took place on May 23.

WE print elsewhere an article on the Austrian situation by Mr. Gustav Pollak. Here it is necessary only to record the resignation on May 23 of the Hungarian Premier, Count Tisza—a resignation mourned in Germany—and the emergence from recent obscurity of his liberal opponent.

SUCCESS or failure of the latest plan for settling the Irish question still hangs in the balance as we write. The attitude of Ulster towards the Convention has not yet been officially pronounced. The Sinn Fein Conference on May 24 unanimously declined to have anything to do with the scheme unless certain conditions —among them that the conference be left free to decree the complete independence of Ireland—were granted in advance. Mr. Lloyd George, in a statement on the question on May 25, appealed to all Irish parties to hasten their decisions.

CHIEF interest in military operations has centred on the Italian front, where progress has been maintained against strong Austrian opposition. A diversion attempted in the Trentino early last week failed of its object, Austrian attacks being completely repulsed. On the Isonzo front considerable progress has been made on the Carso plateau. Salients have been created at Castagnevizza and Medeazza and the Timavo River has been crossed. Since the beginning of their offensive the Italians had taken, up to the end of last week, more than 20,000 prisoners. On the western front there has been deadlock during the last few days.

SUBMARINE records may again be regarded as favorable, the British list for the week ending May 13 giving a loss of eighteen vessels of more and nine of less than 1,600 tons. Arrivals were 2,664; sailings, 2,759. The torpedoing on May 4 of the British transport Transylvania, with a loss of 413 lives, was announced on May 24. Dispatches on Monday announced the loss of the Spanish mail steamer C. de Eizaguirre, from which a large number of the passengers and crew were reported missing.

A RAID by aeroplanes over a town on the southeast coast of England, according to the German account Dover, took place on May 25, with the gratifying result, from the Teutonic point of view, that 76 persons, all of them civilians, were killed and 174 injured. Of the killed the large majority were women and children.

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MISCELLANEOUS

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Boswell's Life of Johnson. With Notes and Introduction by G. E. Jensen. Houghton Mifflin. 55 cents net.
Bowser, T. Britain's Civilian Volunteers. Moffat, Yard. $1.50 net.
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Clark, T. A. The Sunday Eight o'Clock. Urbana, Ill.: Illini Publishing Co.
Coan, C. A. The Fragrant Note Book. Putnam.
Cobb, I. S. Speaking of Prussians. Doran. 50 cents.
Compston, H. F. B. The Magdalen Hospital. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. 7s. 6d. net.
Epictetus. The Discourses and Manual. Vols. I and II. Translated by P. E. Matheson. Oxford Univ. Press. 3s. 6d. each.
Erichsen, E. Forced to Fight. McBride. $1.25 net.
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